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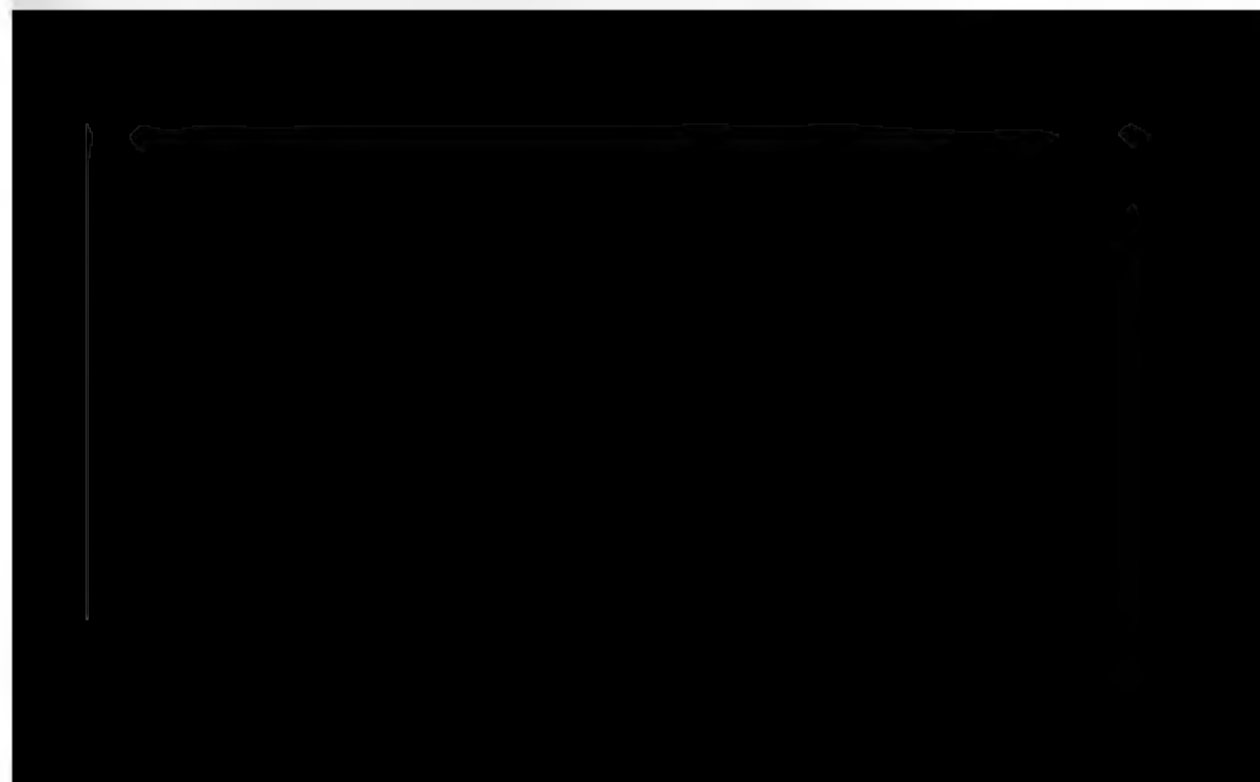
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THE
8.
AMERICAN
JOURNAL OF SCIENCE.

Established by BENJAMIN SILLIMAN in 1818.

EDITORS

JAMES D. AND EDWARD S. DANA.

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

PROFESSORS JOSIAH P. COOKE, GEORGE L. GOODALE
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THIRD SERIES.

VOL. XLII.—[WHOLE NUMBER, CXLII.]

Nos. 247—252.

JULY TO DECEMBER, 1891.

WITH XVI PLATES.

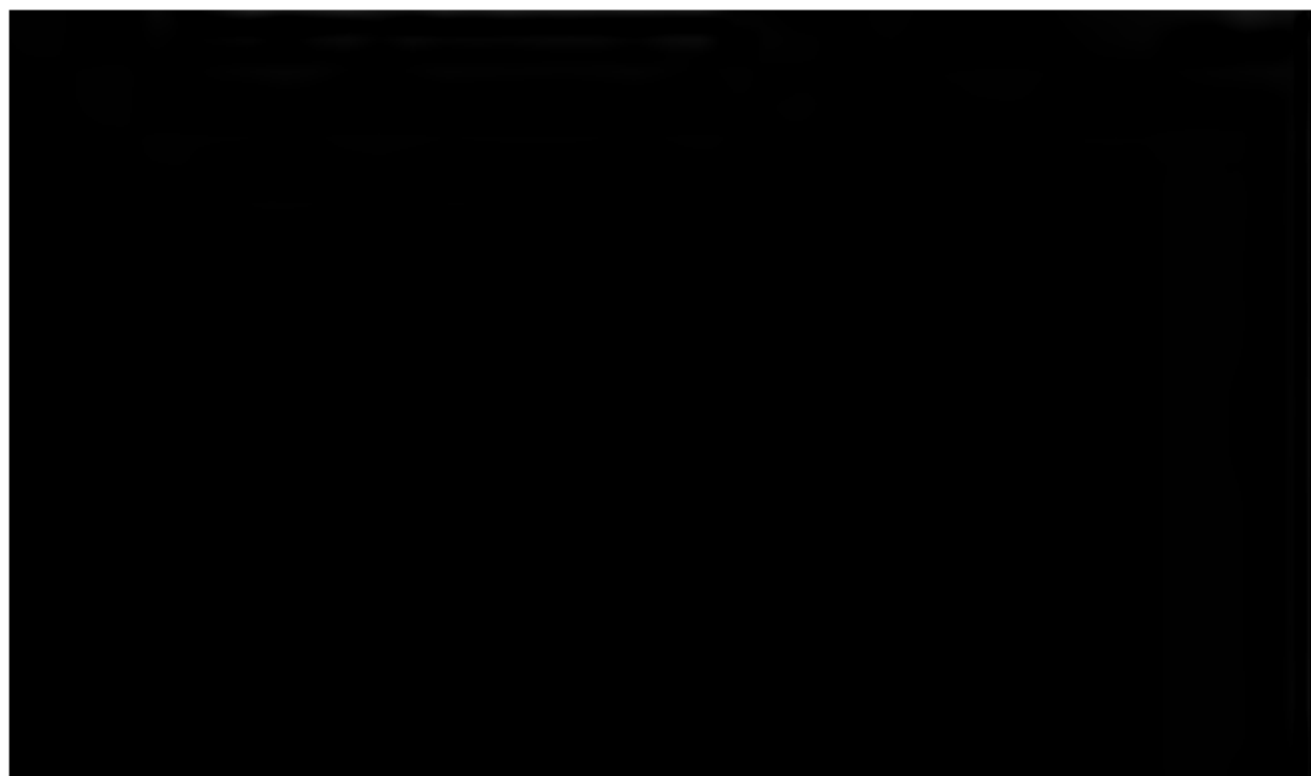
NEW HAVEN, CONN.: J. D. & E. S. DANA.

1891.

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THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

[THIRD SERIES.]

ART. I.—*The Solar Corona, an instance of the Newtonian Potential Function in the case of Repulsion*; by Professor FRANK H. BIGELOW.

[Read before the National Academy of Sciences, Washington, April, 1891. Communicated to the Academy by Professor Simon Newcomb.]

THE term Newtonian Potential Function, first employed by Neumann, is now generally accepted by writers on scientific subjects. It expresses the law of the attraction or the repulsion, as the case may be, of the action of all the material substance in the universe, the discrete parts acting mutually upon one another. The *approximate* value of the attraction between any two rigid bodies may be obtained by assuming that every particle of the one body attracts every particle of the other with a force directly proportional to the product of the masses of each pair of particles, and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between their centers. The *true* value is the limit approached as the bodies are subdivided indefinitely. From this case follows the whole subject treated as the attraction of gravitation. If we substitute in the definition the word repulsion we derive the expression of the second case, and many of the formulæ in the mathematical discussion can be interchanged between the two cases by a proper use of the plus and minus signs. Electricity and magnetism depend upon this function for their analysis.

The mystery underlying the physical condition of matter is as yet insoluble either by metaphysical speculation or by scientific investigation, but it is significant that this Newtonian Potential Function, using both algebraic signs, should reach to all the phenomena known to us up to this time. While I

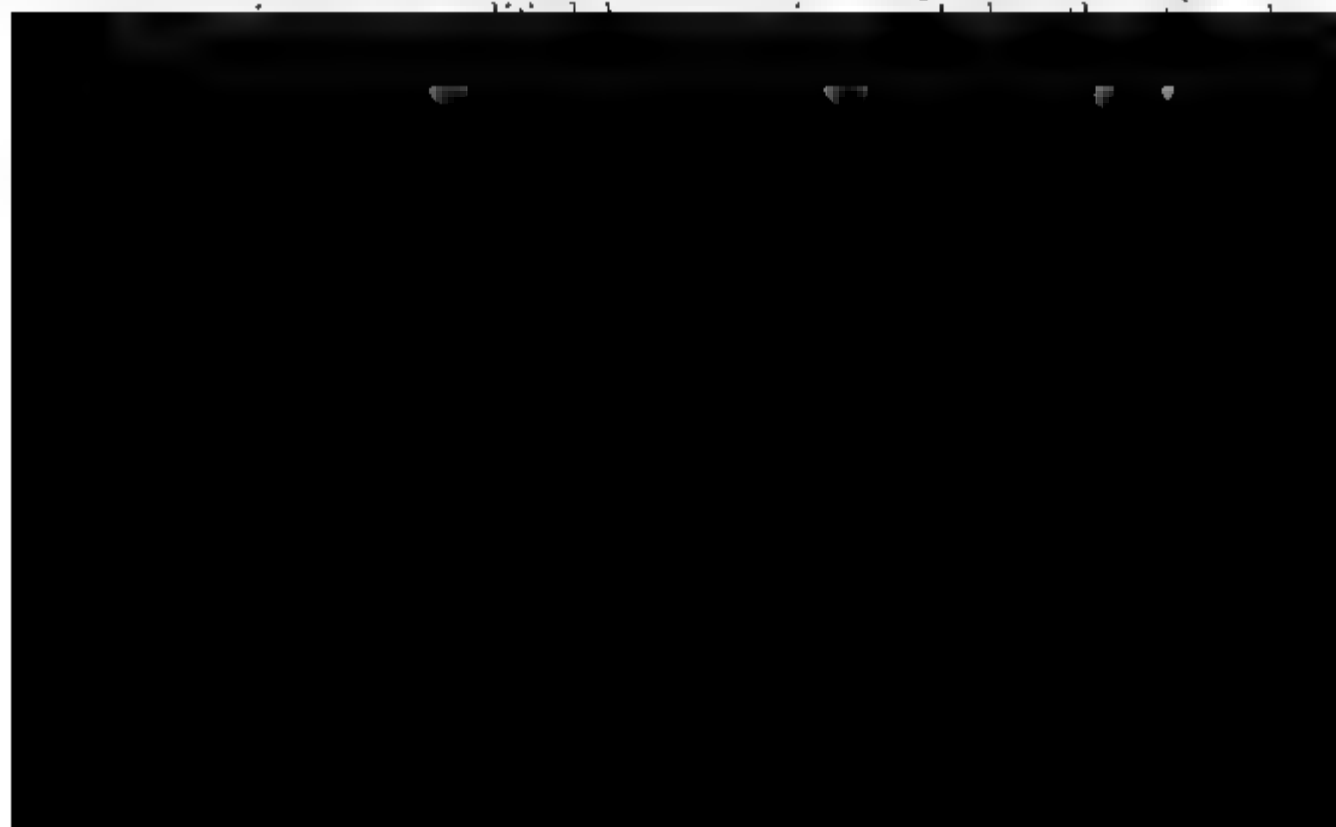
cannot justify the idea, the suspicion keeps forcing itself upon my mind that matter some how, that is to say by change of conditions or environment, can be made to pass from the positive to the negative form of the function and back again. We may yet discover that this is illustrated by the sun, when we get to the bottom of its mysterious nature. At present I am concerned simply with identifying the Solar Corona with the manifestation of the Newtonian Potential Function in the case of repulsion.

Whenever the particles of a body, not undergoing rotation, are free to move among themselves, the body assumes a spherical figure about a center. This figure is modified by the rotation of the body. If in connection with such a spherical body there be present other material conforming to the case of repulsion, the body is polarized along an axis, and the lines of force are parallel to the axis of polarization within the body, become discontinuous at the surface, and on leaving the surface form curves whose locus can be expressed by the formula

$$N = \frac{8\pi}{3} \cdot \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r},$$

where N is the given line (r, θ) the polar coördinates of points measured from the axis of polarization and the center. We are not now discussing either the interior or the surface conditions, and in the case of the potential outside the sun we may believe that we have a nearly ideal distribution, on account of the prevailing conditions of freedom of motion.

In the corona streamers, as displayed by the photographs, we must remember that the curves arising from the equation



less than two degrees, and this had but little influence upon the traces of the curves themselves. The second point, namely, that the center of polarization coincided with the center of the sun was more inaccurate, and this was shown by the fact that in computing the angle through which the plane containing a given ray must be turned about the axis of polarization to produce the curve as it appeared on the photograph, it was found that this angle progressed in value for points of the curve, as we passed from the surface of the sun to its extremity. This angle was however checked at the following step in the computation, by which each measured point on the ray gives the polar distance θ_0 at which the ray under discussion springs from the surface of the sun. We propose to rediscuss this question, in a second approximation, at some future time. The upshot of the whole matter is that of all the curves that theoretically exist in space, as surrounding a polarized sphere, only such occur in the corona as spring from a belt lying generally between the parallels of coronal polar distance 25° to 40° in each hemisphere of the sun. I subjoin a summary of my result for the three coronas. Each value of θ_0 , the polar distance of the base of the ray on the solar photosphere, is the mean of generally three, sometimes four or five points measured on the ray. The mutual agreement is substantial and convincing.

ANGULAR DISTANCE FROM THE CORONAL POLE OF THE BASE OF THE RAYS.

Corona of July 29, 1878.

| Ray. | N. E. | N. W. | S. W. | S. E. | |
|------|---------|--------|---------|---------|-------|
| 1 | 29° 42' | 31° 8' | 32° 41' | 31° 31' | |
| 2 | 28 32 | 27 18 | 30 30 | 31 31' | |
| 3 | 30 52 | 34 40 | 32 25 | 33 44 | |
| 4 | 31 45 | 33 36 | 30 38 | 33 8 | |
| 5 | 32 50 | 33 37 | 34 21 | 33 55 | |
| 6 | 33 46 | 41 34 | 36 16 | 34 8 | |
| 7 | 35 53 | -- -- | 38 58 | 35 11 | |
| 8 | 41 41 | -- -- | 40 54 | 38 18 | |
| | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> | Mean |
| | 33 7 | 33 39 | 34 35 | 33 56 | 33 49 |

Corona of Jan. 1, 1889.

| Ray. | N. E. | N. W. | S. W. | S. E. | |
|------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-------|
| 1 | 34° 54' | 30° 33' | 31° 50' | 31° 52' | |
| 2 | 28 27 | 29 31 | 29 49 | 27 23 | |
| 3 | 24 39 | 32 5 | 31 33 | 30 00 | |
| 4 | 18 1 | 32 18 | 30 11 | 32 16 | |
| 5 | 31 13 | 33 12 | 34 21 | 33 21 | |
| 6 | 37 49 | 32 45 | 29 20 | 33 48 | |
| 7 | 42 51 | -- -- | 36 43 | 34 26 | |
| 8 | -- -- | -- -- | -- -- | 36 52 | |
| | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> | Mean |
| | 31 8 | 31 44 | 31 41 | 32 30 | 31 46 |

Corona of Dec. 22, 1889.

| Ray. | N. E. | N. W. | S. W. | S. E. | |
|------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|----------------|
| 1 | 30° 25' | 28° 51' | 31° 15' | 31° 30' | |
| 2 | 25 33 | 25 11 | 27 19 | 31 56 | |
| 3 | 30 33 | 29 0 | 28 14 | 31 41 | |
| 4 | 27 13 | 26 1 | 26 59 | 31 14 | |
| 5 | 30 16 | 33 56 | 29 10 | 32 14 | |
| 6 | 30 17 | 34 8 | 34 25 | 32 20 | |
| 7 | 31 19 | 34 17 | 36 37 | 33 22 | |
| 8 | 29 43 | 38 17 | 36 16 | -- -- | |
| 9 | 35 55 | 39 17 | -- -- | -- -- | |
| 10 | 38 1 | -- -- | -- -- | -- -- | |
| | <hr/> 30 49 | <hr/> 32 6 | <hr/> 31 24 | <hr/> 32 2 | Mean 31. 36 |

From this we proceed to the location of the coronal poles, or the points on the surface of the sun at which the axis of polarization pierces it.

The results are independent of each other as regards different coronas, and the two hemispheres are also independent for the same corona.

| | North Pole. | | South Pole. | |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Long. | Lat. | Long. | Lat. |
| July 29, 1878, | 83° 18' | 85° 12' | 185° 4' | 83° 49' |
| Jan. 1, 1889, | 73 26 | 84 25 | 174 29 | 86 22 |
| Dec. 22, 1889, | 36 19 | 87 0 | 134 52 | 86 2 |
| Mean latitude, | | <hr/> 85 32 | | <hr/> 85 24 |

Difference in Longitude.

| | |
|----------------|----------|
| July 29, 1878, | 101° 46' |
| Jan. 1, 1889, | 100 53 |

$$\begin{array}{r} 172^{\circ} \ 59' \\ 173 \ 56 \\ 175 \ 23 \\ \hline \text{Mean, } 174^{\circ} \ 6' \end{array}$$

This will enable us to compute the position of the center of polarization of the sun, which is seen to be considerably eccentric, and from this our second approximation begins. It should be mentioned that although the existing photographs have served our purpose, and given results more satisfactory than was anticipated, yet no pains should be spared at approaching eclipses to produce pictures of much greater power than those we now possess. For this subject already opens up a vista of great interest in studying the physical nature of the sun.*

From the results that have been quoted we may draw the conclusion that the axis of polarization seems to be fixed in the body of the sun, the difference in longitude and the distance measured on a great circle being constant, within the errors arising from the measures, for epochs extending over nearly eleven years. Since the coördinates of position of the poles are celestial, we have only to compute the periodic time in order to know the period of the rotation of the sun at a distance of $4\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from the axis of figure. It is desirable that this should be done, because the sun-spots, from which such a period is obtained for the equatorial regions, are confined to about 35° in latitude, and we shall thus be able to pass over the intervening 50° to the neighborhood of the solar poles. I have obtained the following results:

For the period from July 29, 1878 to Jan. 1, 1889, 138 revolutions $+194^{\circ} \cdot 69$; the mean daily motion is $13^{\circ} \cdot 1353$ in longitude.

For the period from July 29, 1878 to Dec. 22, 1889, 151 revolutions $+166^{\circ} \cdot 68$; the mean daily motion is $13^{\circ} \cdot 1312$ in longitude.

For the period from Jan. 1, 1889 to Dec. 22, 1889, 12 revolutions $+331^{\circ} \cdot 99$; the mean daily motion is $13^{\circ} \cdot 0876$ in longitude.

As my conditions are of equal weight for each eclipse, a least square solution gives me for mean daily motion in longitude $13^{\circ} \cdot 13307 = 788'$, at latitude $85^{\circ} \cdot 5$.

This gives for the

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Siderial Period, } 27^{\text{d}} \cdot 41171 = 27^{\text{days}} \ 9^{\text{h}} \ 52^{\text{m}} \ 52^{\text{s}}, \\ \text{Synodic Period, } 29^{\text{d}} \cdot 63580 = 29^{\text{days}} \ 15^{\text{h}} \ 15^{\text{m}} \ 33^{\text{s}}, \end{array}$$

in mean solar time. I propose the following formula for the rotation period of the solar surface at different latitudes, as

* A paper containing the details of the work by which these results were obtained, will be found in the Proceedings of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific, No. 17.

derived from the mean daily motion in longitude given by observations of the sun-spots and by computation at the coronal pole.

$X = 862' - 76' \sin l$, where X is the mean daily motion in minutes and l is the solar latitude.

Other formula have been given :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Faye,} \quad X &= 862 - 186 \sin^2 l. \\ \text{Tisserand,} \quad &= 857.6 - 157.3 \sin^2 l. \\ \text{Spoerer,} \quad &= 1011 - 203 \sin (41^\circ + l). \end{aligned}$$

| Latitude. | Faye. | Tisserand. | Spoerer. | Bigelow. | Sidereal Period in days. |
|-----------|-------|------------|----------|----------|-----------------------------|
| 0° | 863' | 858' | 878 | 862.0 | 25.0577 |
| 10 | 857 | 853 | 853 | 848.8 | 25.4470 |
| 20 | 841 | 839 | 833 | 836.0 | 25.6370 |
| 30 | 816 | 818 | 819 | 824.0 | 26.2131 |
| 40 | 786 | 793 | 810 | 813.2 | 26.5613 |
| 50 | 754 | 765 | 808 | 803.8 | 26.8729 |
| 60 | 723 | 740 | 812 | 796.2 | 27.1288 |
| 70 | 699 | 719 | 821 | 790.6 | 27.3206 |
| 80 | 683 | 705 | 837 | 787.2 | 27.4386 |
| 90 | 677 | 700 | 858 | 786.0 | 27.4806 |

If we compute back to the epoch 1878.0 we find the residuals in longitude for the three coronas,

| | North Pole. | South Pole. |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| July 29, 1878, | -0°.9 | +0°.3 |
| Jan. 1, 1889, | +7°.9 | +8°.4 |
| Dec. 27, 1889, | -7°.0 | -8°.9 |

Adopt as the longitude for 1878.0,



For giving the proper position to the model for any eclipse this simple device is adopted. The circular stand is placed on a sheet of card board and two concentric circles are drawn upon it surrounding the base of the stand. On the inner one the figures represent the direction from the center towards the earth, equal to the sun's longitude of date $+180^\circ$. A mark on the stand, drawn by regarding the inclination of the axis at $7^\circ 15'$, and representing the position of the node, is placed at the reading 74° on the circle just described. For any eclipse turn the card board with the stand upon it about so that the reading ($\odot + 180^\circ$) is between the observer and the center. Furthermore adopting the data given above for the epoch 1878.0 as the elements of predicting the position of the poles of the corona, a table has been constructed for a series of coronas from 1857 to 1893. On the second circle the 0° reading begins at 74° of the first circle, and it is necessary to rotate the ball so that the North pole of the corona shall point to the reading that was computed. The observer will then see the model in the position of the corona of the sun, if the eye is placed on the same level plane as that passing through the center of the ball. The following table gives the two readings necessary for setting the model. They are computed for the Greenwich mean time of conjunction of the Sun and Moon for the several eclipses as given by the Nautical Almanac. Observations made at any other time can be readily corrected.

Table of Coördinates for setting the Model of the Corona.

| Date of Eclipse. | Long. Earth. | Long. Corona. | Date of Eclipse. | Long. Earth. | Long. Corona. |
|---------------------|-----------------|------------------|---------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| 1857.23254 G. M. T. | 185° | 294.4° | 1876.71441 G. M. T. | 355° | 147.7° |
| 1858.68616 " | 344 | 67.3 | 1878.57741 " | 306 | 84.4 |
| 1860.54647 " | 295 | 351.1 | 1880.02999 " | 111 | 212.4 |
| 1862.00094 " | 99 | 128.2 | 1882.37597 " | 236 | 305.9 |
| 1864.34503 " | 225 | 248.6 | 1883.34747 " | 226 | 286.1 |
| 1865.31645 " | 215 | 192.5 | 1885.68965 " | 346 | 1.4 |
| 1867.66140 " | 336 | 281.0 | 1886.66132 " | 336 | 342.4 |
| 1868.63032 " | 325 | 248.8 | 1887.59106 " | 311 | 122.4 |
| 1869.60209 " | 315 | 230.4 | 1889.00517 " | 101 | 65.7 |
| 1871.94778 " | 80 | 322.5 | 1889.97616 " | 91 | 43.5 |
| 1874.29174 " | 206 | 46.3 | 1892.32003 " | 216 | 126.9 |
| 1875.26358 " | 196 | 30.2 | 1893.29187 " | 207 | 108.8 |

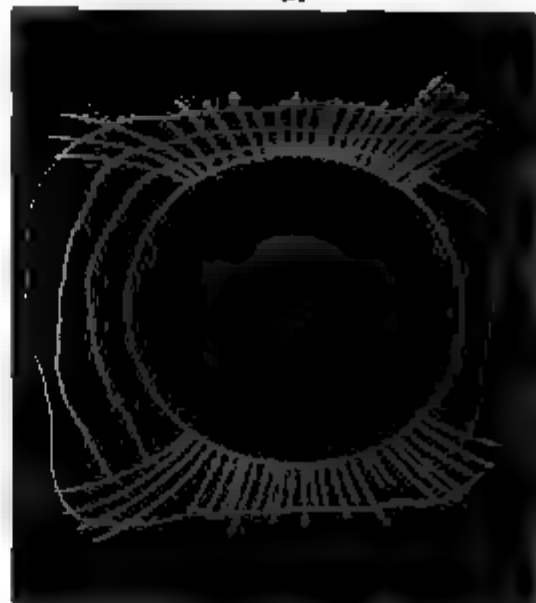
Three cases are presented for comparison. Figures 1, 3, 5, show the model placed in three positions, corresponding to the eclipses of Jan. 1, 1889, August 29, 1886, and July 29, 1878. Figures 2, 4, 6, represent these coronas, as drawn from the photographs.

1.



1889A.

2.



1889A.

3.



4.



making the comparison, it is proper to bear in mind a obvious considerations. The wires that make the rays on model properly represent only stream lines, or portions of streamers of the corona. The curve is true for that part of streamer which springs from the sun at the latitude corresponding to the axis of the wire. Inasmuch as the coronal mer is large at its base the curvature of the ray must agree with its parts with the lines springing from this region. The sequence is that each ray spreads out, as it recedes from the sun to fill all the space occupied by the bounding curves, and as a result the curious forms of the curves of the corona which are definite and conform to this law. I would propose this as a sufficient proof of the truth of the theory, even if it by itself. The rays set into the model do not pretend to represent the lines measured for any particular eclipse, because it is designed to illustrate the subject only in a general way.

One ought properly to construct a model for each case using the computed (α, θ), the coördinates of the base of the ray. Then photographing this, a comparison could be made between the individual lines. The model does not show a nebulous, structureless mass of material, which was probably thrown up along these coronal lines, and is going through various transformations in its return to the sun. We miss also the radiant light which passes through this coronal matter and illuminates it, for the most part in radial lines up to the region of the streamers, where it is in a sense shut off, thus producing the effect of great equatorial extension. Coronal material may accumulate along the equatorial regions for immense distances, then the radiant light streaming through it would produce the wings of the corona. It is evident that the quadrilateral wings are made by the perspective thickening of the coronal material as it passes round the side of the sun. The polar rays are individual streamers seen in projection.

The reproduction of the eclipse photographs is necessarily such as to diminish very much their availability as objects of comparison. This should in fact be made with the glass negative. Still it is easy to infer that there is an agreement in the following respects: (1) as to the general inclination of the corona as a whole to the plane of the ecliptic; (2) as to the general distribution of the larger and the smaller sides, supposing that the nebulous matter is supplied to the model by the imagination; (3) as to the trend of the stream lines wherever they are seen. We do not pretend to show all the individual lines, nor all the special solar outbursts in loco, nor do we pretend to account for all the imperfections of the photographs or drawings. Those which are composite, or which are isolated, or which are inadequate, must take their chances.

This comparison shows, however, that it is not the equatorial extensions which are interesting in this connection, but chiefly the individual stream lines which can be subjected to measures.

Up to this point we have not been dealing in speculations, but in legitimate scientific data and their results. There are, however, two probable conclusions so apparent that I will not abstain from mentioning them.

If we regard these coronal streamers as the paths along which the sun is throwing off a portion of its energy, and consequently along which its material substances are being transported, whatever may be their physical conditions, we have only to suppose that near the extremity of these extremes these conditions change by loss of energy, cooling, condensation, and so on, so that the repulsive power is lost and the gravitation of the sun sets in to take its place. What becomes of this material that has been ejected from high latitudes at the surface of the sun into high altitudes above the equatorial belts? Obviously it must descend again; the heavier or denser vertically, and as the model shows, this will fall directly over the sun-spot regions; the lighter or more finely subdivided in the ceaseless nebulous equatorial rain, which by its increase of angular velocity accelerates the mean daily motion of the surface of the sun itself, at the time of its impact with it. It is a great solar whipping top. Much more might be said to illustrate these statements, and yet but little can be added to the model itself in enforcing this conclusion. There is some evidence shown in the table of the angle θ , giving the polar distances of the base of the streamers for the three eclipses, that the coronal belt has a motion in latitude on the surface of the sun, those of 1889 being more than a degree nearer the poles



solution, including the eccentricity of the center of polarization, the inclination of the axis of polarization to the plane of reference, besides such corrections as may arise from refraction, or diffraction or photography. The importance of the problem will certainly justify us in trying to take good photographs of the streamers at the future eclipses.

ART. II.—*Newtonite and Rectorite—two new minerals of the Kaolinite Group*; by R. N. BRACKETT and J. FRANCIS WILLIAMS.

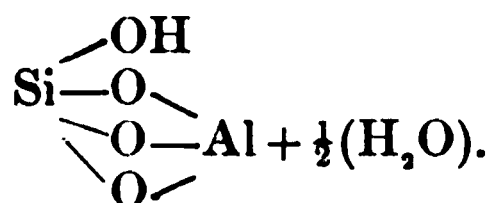
[Published by permission of the State Geologist of Arkansas.]

THE object of the following paper is to briefly describe two hydrous silicates of alumina, which we have every reason to believe have not before been observed, and to call attention to the relation of these new compounds to other members of the group.

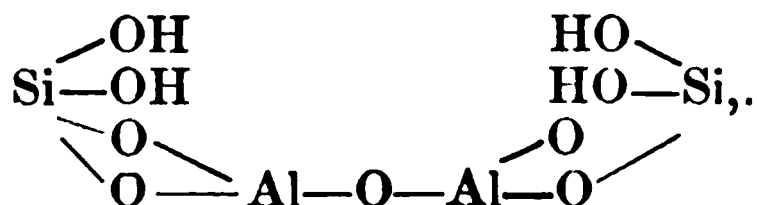
As is well known and generally admitted the commonest substance of this class, kaolin, or when crystallized called kaolinite, approaches the composition represented by the formula $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and has the percentage composition :

SiO_2 46.50 Al_2O_3 39.57 H_2O 13.93 = 100.

Considering half of the water basic or as water of constitution and dividing the formula by two, the constitution of kaolinite may be represented as follows:*



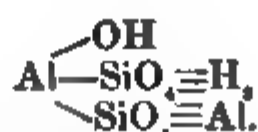
As there is reason to think that all the water represented in the original formula should be regarded as water of constitution, the formula would become :



or writing this in the form suggested by F. W. Clarke in his paper on the Structure of the Natural Silicates,† the following formula is obtained :

* Kaolinite is thus regarded as a derivative of normal silicic acid $\text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$, analogous to a similar compound $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ mentioned by Remsen. Inorganic Chemistry by Ira Remsen. American Science Series—Advanced Course. New York: Henry Holt & Company, 1889, p. 576.

† Bulletin of the U. S. Geological Survey, No. 60, Washington, 1890, p. 16.



Either of these formulas suggests the possibility of the existence of other hydrous silicates of alumina closely related to kaolinite, and indeed differing from it only in the presence of a larger or smaller proportion of water, while the relation of the silica to the alumina remains constant.

It is readily seen that three other hydrous silicates of alumina may be derived by eliminating one molecule, or introducing respectively one and two molecules of water into the formula, and that thus the following series would be formed :

| Formulae. | Percentage composition. | | |
|--|--------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | Al ₂ O ₃ | SiO ₂ | H ₂ O |
| (1) Al ₂ O ₃ . 2SiO ₂ . H ₂ O | 42.52 | 49.99 | 7.49 |
| (2) Al ₂ O ₃ . 2SiO ₂ . 2H ₂ O | 39.57 | 46.50 | 13.93 |
| (3) Al ₂ O ₃ . 2SiO ₂ . 3H ₂ O | 36.98 | 43.47 | 19.55 |
| (4) Al ₂ O ₃ . 2SiO ₂ . 4H ₂ O | 34.72 | 40.82 | 24.46 |

Of this series of four theoretically possible hydrous silicates of alumina only one, No. 2 of the series, ordinary kaolin, has been described, so far as we have been able to find in the literature at our command. From many of the published analyses of halloysite, this mineral might be supposed to correspond with No. 4 of the series, but, as will be shown below, this correspondence is only apparent.

This series will be designated as the *Kaolinite Series*,* and will include the *Kaolinite Group*, which was first established by J. D. Dana in 1858† under the name of the *Halloysite*

termining their water of constitution under the conditions mentioned below.

Since kaolin approaches the composition represented by the formula ascribed to it only when it has been dried at about 110°C ., and from the facts mentioned below regarding halloysite, we propose to consider the whole series as based upon analyses of material dried at 110°C . or thereabouts.

Considering the series in this way, at least one and probably two hydrous silicates of alumina lately analyzed in the laboratory of the Geological Survey of Arkansas fall into this series. One of these corresponds to No. 4 and the other possibly to No. 1 of the series.

Newtonite.

The first compound which will be described, and that which suggested the series given above, is found on Sneed's Creek in the northern part of Newton county (16 N., 23 W., section 1), in the State of Arkansas. At this place a mineral claim was laid and a shaft opened in 1889 by Mr. W. S. Allen of Harrison, Ark. The rocks of the region are for the most part sandstones and shales of the Barren Coal Measures, while the opening itself seems to penetrate some of the limestones of the Lower Carboniferous series. At a depth of eight feet this form of kaolin was found imbedded in a dark gray clay, through which it is scattered in lumps which vary from a few ounces to forty pounds in weight. Iron and a little manganese are also said to occur in the opening. Samples of the material were kindly furnished the Geological Survey of Arkansas by Mr. Allen, the proprietor of the claim.

On account of its occurrence in Newton county we propose the name *Newtonite* for this, the fourth member of the Kaolinite Series.

Newtonite is a pure white, soft, compact, homogeneous substance, and both chemical analysis and microscopic examination show it to be a remarkably pure substance. It is infusible before the blowpipe, and when in the form of a powder it has a specific gravity of 2.37. It is only slightly attacked by boiling concentrated hydrochloric acid, but boiling concentrated sulphuric acid decomposes it almost completely, with a separation of silica. It is also decomposed by a boiling saturated solution of caustic potash with the formation of a compound insoluble in water but easily soluble in cold dilute hydrochloric acid. (See below.)

Quantitative chemical analyses of newtonite gave the following results:

| | I. | II. |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| SiO ₂ | 38.86 | 40.22 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 35.20 | 35.27 |
| Loss on ignition | 23.69 | 22.89 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 0.21 | 0.21 |
| CaO | 0.31 | 0.54 |
| MgO | trace | trace |
| K ₂ O } | 1.73* | 0.99 |
| Na ₂ O } | | 0.73 |
| | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.85 |
| Water at 110°-115° C. .. | 5.53 | 5.44 |

If the impurities be disregarded and the silica, alumina and loss on ignition in analysis I be recalculated to 100 per cent, and the same be done in analysis II, after first bringing the whole to 100 per cent, the following figures are obtained:

| | Ia. | IIa. | Theory for Al ₂ O ₃ .2SiO ₂ .4H ₂ O. |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--|
| SiO ₂ | 39.76 | 40.88 | 40.82 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 36.01 | 35.85 | 34.79 |
| Loss on ignition.. | 24.23 | 23.27 | 24.46 |
| | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.00 |

Although this compound closely resembles ordinary kaolin in its chemical properties, it shows thus a marked difference in composition, by containing for the same amount of silica and alumina double the quantity of water usually found in kaolin.

That an apparent similarity exists between newtonite and halloysite when a comparison is instituted between the analysis

these analyses, kindly furnished the information that the calculations are made on the *air-dried material*, and that in analysis III, 8.68 per cent of the loss on ignition is given off at about 110° C.

If analyses Ia and IIa be calculated to the air-dried material the difference between them and the published analyses of halloysite is clearly shown, as is evident from a consideration of the following table:

| | Ib. | IIb. | Halloysite. |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|
| SiO ₂ | 36.83 | 37.96 | 39.35 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 33.42 | 33.34 | 36.35 |
| Loss on ignition | 24.22 | 23.26 | 14.22 |
| Water at 110°–115° C. ... | 5.53 | 5.44 | 8.68 (at 100° C.) |
| | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 98.60 |

If it be assumed that the 8.68 per cent of water in halloysite is partly hygroscopic and partly water of crystallization, this mineral would have the composition of kaolinite containing one molecule of water of crystallization. Judging from the newtonite analyses Ib and IIb, this substance would, under like circumstances, have one molecule of water of crystallization, but would be represented by the formula $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{aq}$, while the composition of halloysite would be expressed by the formula $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{aq}$.

Ordinary kaolin usually contains less than one per cent of loosely combined water. Hydrous silicates of alumina have, however, been analyzed in this laboratory, which have given off as much as five per cent of water at 110° C., but which differ from ordinary kaolin in no other respect, and it is probable that differences in origin and occurrence will account for these varying amounts of *loosely combined* water.

A thin section of newtonite under the microscope when viewed only with low powers appears as a perfectly amorphous substance but when magnified to four or five hundred diameters it shows that it is entirely made up of minute rhombs or squares. The largest of these are not more than 0.005^{mm} ($\frac{1}{200}$ of an inch) on an edge, while the smallest appear to be about half that size. Sometimes they seem to form perfect squares but in the majority of cases the acute angles have values ranging from 88° to 89°, as nearly as could be measured. There appear between these minute figures blank spaces where nothing can at first be seen, but by sinking the microscope tube somewhat, so as to focus a little lower down, an entirely new set of rhombs is discovered, while those above go out of focus. At first sight all the rhombs appear as squares and show small indistinct lines running from their corners toward the center, giving the appearance of the hopper-shaped crystals of salt.

In addition to this there is a white rim about the edges which gives them the appearance of being higher than the rest of the surface. The cause of this is, however, not due to any marking or relief on the surface but probably to internal reflections whose origin it is hard to detect.

In polarized light the rhombs extinguish sharply parallel to their diagonals, thus showing that they are faces of some anisotropic material and not, as might be supposed, sections of cubes which had been cut more or less obliquely.

If these rhombs and squares are sections of rhombohedrons then one would expect to find also plane triangles corresponding to sections perpendicular to the principal axis. This, however, is not the case and only in a very few instances have any triangular forms been found and even then they are very indistinct and appear to be not in the upper surface of the plate but somewhat lower down. It is probable that in making sections of this material the individual crystals are not cut, but are either rubbed away entirely, or are left undisturbed, so that what are seen under the microscope are not sections but crystal faces. By means of a selenite plate the positions of the axes of greatest and least elasticity were determined, and were found to lie respectively parallel to the shorter and longer diagonals of the rhomb.

By powdering some of the material and allowing it to settle out from water, similar rhombohedral crystals were obtained.

Rectorite.

The second hydrous silicate of alumina, which is also to be regarded as new, is found in the Blue Mountain mining district in Marble Township, Garland county, 2 North, 19 West



ined with hydrous oxide of iron and present a reddish-brown appearance. The sheets tear apart easily and are very flexible and perfectly non-elastic. Some specimens of this mineral have been obtained through the kindness of Mr. Charles F. Brown, of Hot Springs, in which fine doubly terminated quartz crystals are imbedded. Some of the latter are at least one and a half inches in length and when surrounded by the rectorite form very beautiful and striking specimens. The hardness of rectorite is less than that of talc—say 0.5—although this is difficult to estimate exactly. When heated in the flame of a Bunsen burner it loses water and becomes brittle. It is infusible before the blowpipe. Its behavior when treated with sulfuric acid and caustic potash will be explained below.

Two quantitative chemical analyses gave the following percentage composition calculated on the material dried at 110° C.:

| | V. | VI. |
|--|--------|--------|
| SiO ₂ | 52.72 | 52.88 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 36.60 | 35.51 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ } | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| CaO } | 0.45 | 0.45 |
| MgO } once determined | 0.51 | 0.51 |
| K ₂ O } | 0.26 | 0.26 |
| Na ₂ O } | 2.83 | 2.83 |
| Loss on ignition | 7.76 | 7.72 |
| <hr/> | | |
| Total | 101.38 | 100.41 |
| Water at 110° C. | 8.78 | 8.33 |

If these analyses be brought to 100 per cent, then all save silica, alumina, and loss on ignition be disregarded and the analyses again calculated to 100 per cent, the following figures result:

| | Va. | VIa. | Theoretical for Al ₂ O ₃ . 2SiO ₂ . H ₂ O. |
|--------------------------------------|--------|--------|---|
| SiO ₂ | 54.32 | 55.01 | 49.99 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 37.69 | 36.96 | 42.52 |
| Loss on ignition..... | 7.99 | 8.03 | 7.49 |
| <hr/> | | | |
| | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |

If the calculations be made on the air-dried material the following figures are obtained:

| | VIb. |
|--------------------------------------|--------|
| SiO ₂ | 50.18 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 33.72 |
| Loss on ignition..... | 7.32 |
| Water at 110°–115° C. | 8.78 |
| <hr/> | |
| | 100.00 |

If the water given off at 110° – 115° C. be regarded mainly as water of crystallization it is evident that it corresponds to one molecule, and the compound would have the formula, $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{aq.}$

Under the microscope a cleavage plate usually shows a few spots where it is evident that only one plate is included in the thickness, while the most of the section is made up of two or more plates lying one over another. In the single plate there is one comparatively distinct system of parallel lines in the direction of which a sharp extinction takes place. There is usually also a much less distinct system of lines which lie at nearly right angles to the first.* In the thicker portions of the plate two or more such pairs of line systems are often found superimposed one upon the other. In such cases the extinction parallel to either system is very indistinct.

The index of refraction is low—lower than that of Canada balsam—and the peculiar structure of the plates gives to the thin section, especially when viewed without the microscope, a peculiar undulating and glistening appearance.

In convergent polarized light, the simple plates show a strong double refraction, and give very beautiful biaxial interference figures. The acute bisectrix appears to stand perpendicular to the cleavage plane.† The angle between the hyperbolas varies much in size, in some cases being not more than 5° , and in others approaching nearer to 15° or 20° . The rings about the axes join each other forming ellipses so that the determination of the dispersion of the axes and bisectrix is uncertain. It appears, however, as if the angle for red were greater than that for blue, $\rho > \nu$. Dispersion of the bisectrix appears to be wanting. The fact that in many cases two plates lie one over

analyses so that the discrepancy between them and the calculated formula may well be ascribed to this cause. There was, however, no mineral detected which would account for the relatively large amount of alkali shown by the analysis, and it is possible that the soda should be considered as replacing some of the water and be brought into the formula. Further investigation will probably throw some light on this point.

In view of the relatively large quantities of quartz of both macroscopic and microscopic dimensions, which have been observed intermixed with the rectorite, it may be allowable to consider the excess of silica found in the analyses as due principally to this cause. By recalculating the analysis after deducting just enough silica to bring that constituent down to the theoretical amount, the following percentages are obtained :

| | Vc. | VIc. | Theoretical for $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}.$ |
|-------------------------------|--------|-------------|--|
| SiO_2 | 49.99 | 49.99 | 49.99 |
| Al_2O_3 | 41.26 | 41.08 | 42.52 |
| H_2O | 8.75 | 8.93 | 7.49 |
| | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> |
| Total | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |

In order to determine whether or not the soda found in the analyses really belonged to the rectorite, the following experiment was made. The mineral, in small flakes, was digested with concentrated hydrochloric acid for two hours on a sand bath. It was then washed and filtered, and the residue was boiled with sodic carbonate in order to remove any separated silica. The remaining substance was then washed with water, hydrochloric acid, and again with water, and was finally heated before the blast lamp. A portion of this dried and purified material was then analyzed with the following result :

| | VII. |
|---------------------------------|--------|
| SiO_2 | 57.10 |
| Al_2O_3 | 40.53 |
| | <hr/> |
| Sum | 97.63 |
| Impurities (undetermined) | 2.37 |
| | <hr/> |
| Total | 100.00 |

It appears from this that about half of the alkaline impurities were removed, but that the silica and alumina had approximately the same relative values as before. If the theoretical amount of water be introduced into this analysis, and the silica be diminished as in the preceding case, the analysis then expresses very nearly the theoretical composition.

Many points of similarity appear between rectorite and kaolinite, but in view of the peculiarity of the form which it assumes, and on account of its chemical composition, it is probable that it should be considered as a separate mineral.

In confirmation of the above opinion the statements of two manufacturers of ceramics to whom specimens of rectorite were sent for firing may be quoted.

Homer Laughlin, Esq., of East Liverpool, Ohio, writes: "The sample of what you call kaolinite, sent me, was duly received, and carefully examined and tested under fire. The mineral is neither kaolin nor kaolinite, but just what it should be called I am unable to say, never in all my experience having seen any mineral of its kind. Unlike kaolin it will not dissolve* in water. It burns a white color and becomes very vitreous and strong. It cannot be finished with a smooth face or skin, but roughs up like a blotting pad. It is certainly a very interesting and curious mineral, but I can think of no use for it in ceramic manufacture unless it could, after careful experiments, be made into novel ornaments."

Messrs. Oliphant & Company of the Delaware Pottery, Trenton, New Jersey, write: "Your sample of kaolinite came out of the kiln to-day, and would say that we are unable to make any report upon it. We do not know just what it is, therefore cannot say anything about its quality or market value."

It appears therefore from the above that its physical properties when subjected to heat do not correspond to those of kaolin.

Experiments were made in the laboratory on the relative solubility of newtonite and rectorite, and at the same time

dissolved readily in cold dilute hydrochloric acid in all cases except that of rectorite. In order to dissolve the residue from the latter it was necessary to use much stronger acid and even then the solution was not complete. The composition of this residue has not yet been determined.

From the foregoing facts and considerations, it is probable that three members out of the possible four, making up the above described series, are known, and the present status of the Kaolinite Series may therefore be concisely stated as follows:

KAOLINITE SERIES

- | | | |
|--------------------------|--|------------------|
| 1. Rectorite | $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\text{SiO}_2, \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{aq.}$ | Monoclinic (?). |
| 2. Kaolinite and members | $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\text{SiO}_2, 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ | Monoclinic or 0. |
| of the Kaolinite Group | $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\text{SiO}_2, 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{aq.}$ | 0. |
| 3. | $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\text{SiO}_2, 3\text{H}_2\text{O.}$ | |
| 4. Newtonite | $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3, 2\text{SiO}_2, 4\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{aq.}$ | Rhombohedral. |

In the case of other hydrous silicates of alumina, as well as of magnesia and other bases, similar homologous series could be formed, which would tend toward a more systematic arrangement of the species than now exists.

Chem. and Petrog. Laboratory of the Geol. Survey of Arkansas, Dec., 1890.

ART. III.—*On the Intensity of Sound.*—II. *The Energy used by Organ Pipes*; by CHARLES K. WEAD.

[Read in abstract at the Philadelphia meeting of the American Association, 1884.]

IN a former paper* the case of a vibrating tuning fork has been considered as an important example of sounding bodies that gradually expend the store of energy originally imparted to them. We have now to consider one of the class that can store up little or no energy, viz: an organ pipe; and have therefore to determine, not the rate of loss as with the fork and piano string, but the rate at which energy is supplied to the system from without. The experimental problem is very simple, and it seems strange that it has not been completely worked out.

The literature of the subject is very slight. Lord Rayleigh,† in an oft-quoted experiment, measured the pressure and volume of air supplied to a whistle of 2740 d. v., and so found the rate of consumption of energy. Several years earlier Mr. Bosanquet in a very interesting and valuable paper‡ discussed the relative amount of energy supplied to the several pipes of an

* This Journal, xxvi, 177, Sept., 1883.

† Phil. Mag., xlv, 1872.

‡ Proc. Roy. Soc., xxvi, 248.

Open Diapason stop in an organ, but gave no absolute amount. He assumes as a matter of general knowledge that an organ builder furnishes a series of pipes of sensibly equal loudness (and quality) throughout the scale; he quotes what he calls Töpfer's law, that the consumption of wind by pipes belonging to the same stop varies directly as the length of the pipe, and confirms it approximately by experiments; and so he concludes that the amount of energy per second necessary to produce sounds of equal loudness under similar conditions varies inversely as the vibration-frequency. On the other hand M. Allard* makes the assumption that the energy per second needed to maintain a sound just audible at a given distance varies directly as the vibration-frequency, and finds a satisfactory confirmation of his views in the experiments on the range of fog-horns made by various lighthouse boards. But the condition of the observer will be very different in the two cases; so they are scarcely comparable.

The experiments now to be detailed and discussed are sufficiently numerous and exact to disprove this alleged law of Töpfer's, so far at least as one organ is a fair sample of all. They were performed on a Hook and Hastings No. 11 Organ in the Congregational Church of Ann Arbor, Mich.; this instrument has two manuals of 58 keys each from C to a''', the great organ having 9 stops—the seven to be named in table I, a 2 $\frac{2}{3}$ ' twelfth and a 3 rank mixture. The pressure of wind was very exactly 3 inches of water, and the total capacity of the bellows about 35 cubic feet; this quantity of wind would leak out in about 3 minutes.

The only method of experiment available, unless one has a very large gas meter at his disposal, is to fill the bellows and

But the numbers he gives, especially for leakage, show such wide variations as to throw great doubt on the accuracy of the method. Therefore two modifications were made: first, a stop-watch indicating eighths of a second was used; and second, the movement of the wind-indicator above the keyboard was observed through a space of 50^{mm}; to be sure only about one-third of the wind was used, but it is absolutely necessary to allow 10 to 20 seconds to elapse for the subsidence of the strong vibrations set up in the top of the bellows by the act of pumping. It was sometimes found that though no key was pressed the leakage was different according as the stop was drawn or closed, especially with one of the pedal stops.

One further modification of method was made: since the leakage is more than the amount of wind consumed by any single pipe, except a few of the largest, the influence of errors of observation was diminished by combining several pipes so that they might all sound at once; two ways of doing this were tried:

1. A single stop was drawn, and several consecutive white keys, usually eight, were held down by a loaded block; thus we find the relative consumption of wind by different stops, or by pipes of the same stop in different parts of the scale. See table I.

2. Several stops were drawn as in ordinary playing, and a single key held down by a wedge. In this case each pipe receives less wind than when no unison pipe is near, a fact long known and further established by these experiments; but we may still find the relative wind-supply in different parts of the scales. See table II and part of III.

Most of the results of the work can be given best in tabular form. In the tables the names of the stops need no explanation; where 9 stops were drawn they comprise all the stops drawn by the *forte* composition pedal, including the 7 named separately, a twelfth and a 3-rank mixture. The notation of the keys is used consistently always referring to the key, not the pitch, c' corresponding to middle c ($=268$ d. v.) when an 8' stop is drawn; it will therefore be seen that the absolute pitch of all the notes in the lower part of table I is the same; while in the next table pipes of five different lengths, besides the mixtures will respond to a single key. L of course means leakage. The time given is the mean of from 3 to 8 observations: these agreed so well that the probable error of the mean is very rarely 1 per cent: take two examples at random;

Table III C $22\frac{4}{8}$, $22\frac{6}{8}$, $22\frac{6}{8}$, $22\frac{5}{8}$; mean 22.66 sec.

C-c $6\frac{3}{8}$, $6\frac{3}{8}$, $6\frac{5}{8}$, $6\frac{2}{8}$, $6\frac{2}{8}$; mean 6.375 sec.

The following columns contain respectively $1 \div t$, and this quantity diminished by the leakage: this remainder represents

ONE STOP DRAWN; SEVERAL KEYS DEPRESSED.

| | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. |
|-----|--------------------------|--------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|------------|-----------------------------|
| | V. | Ratio. | V ² . | (8-8)+8. | V ² . | (3-10)+10. | Energy. |
| | $3.4 \times 10^4 \times$ | | $3.4 \times 10^4 \times$ | per cent. | $3.4 \times 10^4 \times$ | per cent. | ergs. sec. $10^4 \times$ |
| 78 | -1660 | | | +1.5 | | | 415 |
| 18 | -0967 | .569 | .1035 | -4.6 | .1741 | -4.7 | 242 |
| 45 | -0660 | .683 | .0628 | +5.1 | .1035 | -6.5 | 165 |
| 18 | -0383 | .580 | .0389 | -1.6 | .0616 | +7.3 | 96 |
| 15 | -0297 | | | | .0366 | +4.6 | 74 |
| 74 | | | | | | | |
| 11 | -1807 | | | | | | 452 |
| 63 | -1009 | | | | | | 252 |
| 108 | -0755 | | | | | | 189 |
| 116 | -0822 | | .0766 | +7. | | | 206 |
| 125 | -0471 | .573 | .0649 | -14. | | | 118 |
| 119 | -0395 | .839 | .0377 | +5. | | | 99 |
| 21 | -0267 | .660 | .0264 | -1. | | | 67 |
| 226 | -0872 | | .0816 | +7. | .0896 | -2.7 | 218 |
| 119 | -0465 | .533 | .0533 | -13. | .0533 | -13. | 116 |
| 27 | -0373 | .802 | .0366 | +2. | .0317 | +18. | 93 |
| 97 | -0643 | | | | | | 161 |
| 114 | -0460 | .71 | | | | | 116 |
| 114 | -0460 | | | | | | 116 |
| 114 | -0750 | | | | | | 188 |
| 110 | -0536 | | | | | | 134 |
| 111 | -0407 | | | | | | 102 |
| 154 | -0400 | | | | | | 100 |
| 100 | -0546 | | | | | | 187 |
| 226 | -0872 | | | | | | 218 |

that fraction of the total volume of wind which goes to the pipe: the total volume was found by measuring the bellows and the distance it fell while the indicator moved 50 mm.; this was 11.9 cu. ft.=337000 cc. (say 3.4×10^5 cc.) with an uncertainty of 1 or 2 per cent on account of the folds: this uncertainty, however, does not affect the relative values given in the tables, for it is an uncertainty in our knowledge, not in the action of the bellows.

TABLE II.—NINE STOPS DRAWN; ONE KEY DEPRESSED.

July 21.

| 1. Key. | 2. t. | 3. 1+t. | 4. V. | 5. Comp. V. | 6. 4+5. | 7. 6+5. | 8. Energy. |
|------------|----------|------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------|-----------------------------|
| | sec. | | c. c. $3.4 \times 10^5 \times$ | $3.4 \times 10^5 \times$ | $3.4 \times 10^5 \times$ | per cent. | ergs. sec. $10^6 \times$ |
| L | 67.37 | .0148 | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| C | 12.35 | .0810 | .0662 | .0652 | + .0010 | + 1.5 | 165 |
| C # | 12.94 | .0773 | .0625 | .0625 | 0 | 0 | 156 |
| D | 13.32 | .0751 | .0603 | .0598 | + 5 | + .8 | 151 |
| D # | 13.03 | .0767 | .0619 | .0573 | + 46 | + 8.0 | 155 |
| E | 15.25 | .0656 | .0508 | .0549 | — 41 | — 7.6 | 127 |
| F | 14.56 | .0687 | .0539 | .0526 | + 13 | + 2.5 | 135 |
| F # | 15.69 | .0637 | .0489 | .0504 | — 15 | — 3.0 | 122 |
| G | 16.00 | .0625 | .0477 | .0483 | — 6 | — 1.3 | 119 |
| G # | 16.79 | .0596 | .0448 | .0463 | — 15 | — 3.2 | 112 |
| A | 17.08 | .0586 | .0438 | .0443 | — 5 | — 1.1 | 110 |
| A # | 17.21 | .0581 | .0433 | .0424 | + 9 | + 2.1 | 108 |
| B | 18.65 | .0536 | .0388 | .0407 | — 19 | — 4.7 | 97 |
| c | 17.58 | .0569 | .0421 | .0390 | + 31 | + 8.0 | 105 |
| L | 67.43 | | | Mean | | ± 3.4 | ---- |

July 28.

| 1. Key. | 2. t. | 3. 1+t. | 4. V. | 8. Energy. | 1. Key. | 2. t. | 3. 1+t. | 4. V. | 8. Energy. |
|------------|----------|------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|----------|------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | | c. c. $3.4 \times 10^5 \times$ | ergs. sec. $10^6 \times$ | | | | c. c. $3.4 \times 10^5 \times$ | ergs. sec. $10^6 \times$ |
| L | 77.37 | .0129 | ---- | ---- | g | 24.29 | .0412 | .0286 | 71 |
| c | 17.87 | .0560 | .0431 | 108 | g # | 24.37 | .0410 | .0285 | 71 |
| c # | 18.69 | .0535 | .0407 | 102 | a | 26.04 | .0384 | .0259 | 65 |
| d | 20.54 | .0487 | .0359 | 90 | a # | 22.83 | .0438 | .0313 | 78 |
| d # | 21.21 | .0471 | .0344 | 86 | b | 27.33 | .0366 | .0242 | 60 |
| e | 23.25 | .0430 | .0303 | 76 | c' | 26.79 | .0373 | .0249 | 62 |
| f | 24.21 | .0413 | .0286 | 71 | L | 80.81 | .0124 | ---- | ---- |
| f # | 24.10 | .0415 | .0289 | 72 | | | | | |

The energy is found by multiplying the volume by the pressure, which was 15.6 lbs. per sq. ft. or 7.6 gms. per sq. cm.
∴ Total energy=11.9×15.6=186 ft. lbs.= 2.5×10^9 ergs.
By this multiply the fractions in columns headed V, as col. 6 table I.

The numbers in the column ratio (except in table IV) are found by dividing the number against which they are placed by the preceding one; if Töpfer's law were true these ratios would be for the octave everywhere $\cdot 500$.

TABLE III.—MISCELLANEOUS.

| 1. Stops drawn. | 2. Key. | 3. <i>t</i> . | 4. <i>l</i> + <i>t</i> . | 5. V. | 6. Ratio. | 7. Energy. |
|--|------------|------------------|-----------------------------|--|--------------|----------------------------|
| | | sec | | c c. $3 \cdot 4 \times 10^5 \times$ | | ergs. sec $10^4 \times$ |
| 16' Bourdon | L | 69·44 | ·0144 | | ---- | |
| | C | 22·66 | ·0441 | ·0297 | ---- | 74 |
| | D | 29·59 | ·0350 | ·0206 | ---- | 52 |
| | E | 33·22 | ·0301 | ·0157 | ---- | 39 |
| | F | 33·50 | ·0299 | ·0156 | ---- | 39 |
| | C | 35·59 | ·0281 | ·0137 | ---- | 34 |
| | A | 38·04 | ·0263 | ·0119 | ---- | 30 |
| | B | 39·58 | ·0253 | ·0109 | ---- | 27 |
| | C | 32·37 | ·0309 | ·0165 | ---- | 41 |
| | C-c | 6·375 | ·1569 | ·1425 | ---- | 356 |
| 8' Open Diapason, Melodia, Dulciana } | Π | 69·62 | ·0144 | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| | C | 19·21 | ·0549 | ·0405 | ---- | 101 |
| | c | 26·62 | ·0376 | ·0232 | ·572 | ■ |
| | c' | 35·25 | ·0284 | ·0140 | ·603 | 35 |
| | c'' | 43·69 | ·0229 | ·0085 | ·608 | 21 |
| 9 stops | L | 70·6 | ·0142 | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| | C | 12·37 | ·0557 | ·0667 | ---- | 167 |
| | c | 17·96 | ·0557 | ·0415 | ·632 | 104 |
| | c' | 26·00 | ·0385 | ·0243 | ·586 | 61 |
| | c'' | 34·25 | ·0292 | ·0150 | ·619 | 38 |
| | c''' | 44·62 | ·0224 | ·0083 | ·550 | 21 |
| 9 stops | L | 80·62 | ·0124 | ---- | For 17th. | ---- |
| | C | 12·42 | ·0806 | ·0681 | ---- | 170 |
| | c | 23·25 | ·0430 | ·0306 | ·449 | 77 |
| | c' # | 17·46 | ·0267 | ·0143 | ·467 | 36 |

in a following column. To obtain V'' in cols. 10 and 11, table I, the ratio was assumed as $\sqrt[4]{\frac{1}{8}}$.

Observations of the same quantity on different days agree to within a few per cent (e. g. key C with 9 stops, .0662, .0667, .0681) but since they differ more than the probable error of a single day's observations the results in the different tables should not be combined if accurate relative values are desired, nor should results in the same table be combined unless they are based on the same value of L . The data for table I were obtained in April and May, 1883, and are not quite as accurate as the data obtained in July, 1884, for the later tables.

Conclusions.—The results of experiments with *different stops* are shown in table I. It is very clear from them that no exact or important conclusions can be drawn from the loudness of the sound as to the relative quantity of wind required to blow pipes of different construction: thus, the soft Dulciana takes more than half as much wind as the comparatively loud Open Diapason ($102 \div 188$). Again, the Trumpet stop in this organ is voiced very loud, yet its pipes require absolutely less energy than any others that sound the same note: this is a conclusive proof that a reed-pipe has a much higher efficiency as a wave-producing mechanism than a flue pipe.

The results on *different pipes* of the same stop or of the same combination of stops are shown in all the tables; in table I for the eight notes of an octave taken together in various parts of the scale, a single stop being drawn; in table II for each of the twenty-five notes in a range of two octaves, nine stops being drawn; in table III for various combinations of stops. Some of the conclusions from these are very clear, and some curious. We must assume with Mr. Bosanquet that a set of pipes gives us a series of sounds of the same quality and of nearly the same loudness as judged by the ear of an expert, and also assume that all pipes of the same stop are equally efficient sound-producers. Now if we recall Töpfer's law, that the consumption of wind varies inversely as the length of the pipe, we should expect to find for the octave approximately the ratio .500, or a little less, since the higher pipes are relatively larger than the lower ones and so must be relatively shorter. But not a single ratio can be found in the tables to confirm this view; everywhere the ratio is considerably greater than .5. The tables give the values in a dozen cases (not including the Trumpet stop) and from table II a dozen more values can readily be found.

To some of the observations it seemed worth while to apply the method of least squares as already said; the several ratios found for the octave are given in table IV.

If a smooth exponential curve be drawn with these ratios for the experiments of table I, where eight keys were depressed at once, it will be found to fall below the experimental curve in the first and third octaves, and above it in the second and fourth octaves in every case examined; the magnitude of the difference is shown in column 9; but this alternating deviation is not great, and is probably not of importance; it does not appear in table III, where several stops are combined.

TABLE IV.

| Table. | Stop drawn | No. keys. | Range. Octaves. | Number equations. | Ratio. | Av. Difference per cent. |
|--------|----------------|-----------|--------------------|----------------------|--------|-----------------------------|
| I | Trumpet. | 8 | 4 | 4 | .701 | ± 7 |
| I | Open Diapason. | 8 | 4 | 4 | .620 | ± 3.2 |
| I | Fifteenth. | 8 | 3 | 2 | .654 | ± 10 |
| I | Bourdon. | 8 | 2 | -- | .71 | -- |
| III | Three stops. | 1 | 3 | 4 | .595 | ± 1.4 |
| III | Nine stops. | 1 | 4 | 5 | .595 | ± 2.4 |
| III | " | 1 | 4 | 4 | .591 | ± 7 |
| II | " | 1 | 1 | 13 | .5975 | ± 3.4 |

The latter half of table IV shows that when the stops were combined as in ordinary playing, but a single key being pressed, there is a remarkable constancy in the value of the ratio for the octave however it is determined, and its value for the Open Diapason differs little from these latter values. This constancy demands an explanation. According to Töpfer's law we should have $.50 = \sqrt[4]{\frac{1}{2}}$; we do have very nearly $\sqrt[4]{\frac{1}{2}} = .5946 = 1 \div 1.682$. This I believe to be an excellent illustration of the unconscious recognition by the artist of the physical or mathe-

is of course $(\frac{1}{2})^{16} = .9576$. This ratio for the diameters is only a mathematical expression of a mechanical *fact*, there is no theory about it. Such a "scale" gives convenient rules in practice for laying out the pipes, and satisfies the ear, or it would not have found such general adoption. In this organ Open Diapason c' has an internal diameter of 57 min., the e'' of $29\frac{1}{2}$; the Dulciana c' of 31, the e'' of $15\frac{1}{2}$ *. It is not for a moment to be assumed that the amount of wind required is directly determined by the diameter of the pipe; for the organ builder would point out that the shape of the mouth is an important factor, and that the voicer or finisher varies the amount of wind by plugging the holes through the feet of wood pipes, cutting out or closing the feet of metal pipes, varying the width of the slit for the wind, etc., till his ear is satisfied with the loudness and quality of the sound. But in the light of these experiments we must conclude that for similar pipes the volume of air used per second, and therefore the energy expended per second, varies as the $\frac{8}{5}$ -power of the wave-length of the note, or inversely as the $\frac{5}{8}$ -power of the vibration-ratio; and further conclude that the voicer unconsciously strives to secure this ratio just as the tuner unconsciously strives to get the familiar vibration-ratios in the tuning of any instrument. It is to be remembered that we cannot recognize small differences of intensity with much accuracy. Volkman could always detect a difference of 25 per cent; Renz & Wolff† one of 28 per cent; the latter experimenters

* In Clarke's little book on "The Pipe Organ" a simple construction is given for finding the diameters of intermediate pipes when the diameters are given for two pipes 16, 8, 4, &c. semitones apart. At the ends of any convenient base line AB erect perpendiculars AC, BD proportional to the given diameters and join the ends C, D: Draw the two diagonals of the trapezoid thus formed and erect through their point of intersection a perpendicular to the base line. The part of this perpendicular between AB and CD is proportional to the diameter of the pipe midway between the given extremes. By continuing the construction the diameters of the other pipes will be obtained.

A little calculation shows that this gives a harmonic series, and if the first diameter be 2, and the seventeenth 1, the series is $32 \div 16, 17, 18 \dots 31, 32$. All of the intermediate quotients are slightly less than the numbers derived from the exponential series whose ratio is the 16th root of $\frac{1}{2}$, the value for the 8ve being $\frac{1}{2}^{\frac{1}{16}} = .571$ instead of .5946. The maximum difference is about 5 per cent—a quantity entirely negligible to ordinary ears.

If a series of pipes were made on this harmonic scale and the quantities of wind could be accurately adjusted in the ratio of the diameters, an exponential curve deduced from experiments on them would show an "alternating deviation" similar to that referred to above. The sign of the deviation in a given 8ve would depend on where the starting point of the harmonic scale was taken.

The sum of 8 terms of the harmonic series corresponding to the key of C, the lowest term being 1, is 5.95: of the same terms of the exponential series 6.19; of 13 terms in the exponential series 9.4. Therefore to find the amount of wind (or of energy) used by the lowest pipe of any group of eight in the tables divide by 6 the amount given for the group.

† Pogg. Ann., xcvi, 595, 1856.

were correct in their judgments about the loudness of sound of a watch when held at different distances in only 55 per cent of their trials if the ratio of loudness in the two cases (computed from the law of inverse squares) was 100:92. In the light of such experiments the numbers headed per cent of difference in our tables are strikingly small in nearly every case—partly of course because of the method of averages we have followed, a number of pipes sounding at once in most cases.

It is interesting to compare the energy used here with that of a tuning fork. From table IV of my former paper (p. 186) it appears that the maximum energy I could give by bowing to König's forks of the middle octave mounted on their cases was considerably less than 0.5×10^4 ergs.; and the maximum rate at which energy was lost was about 0.1×10^4 ergs. per sec. But the Open Diapason pipes of this range ($c' - c''$) used each from 18 to 30×10^4 ergs. per sec., some 250 times as much as the fork giving its maximum sound, or from 1,000 to 6,000 times as much as the fork when giving an ordinary sound. About one-millionth of one horse-power would maintain in ordinary vibration one of these forks; and a tenth of this amount gave a sound loud enough to be heard 200 feet in the open air.

There remains one question of some interest: Do all parts of the scale *seem to the ear* to be of equal loudness, especially the scale of an organ for which we have found the relative intensity of vibration. I find few musicians who have any definite impression on the subject; the question is certainly difficult and is perhaps indefinite. If, for example, we call

of tone, the boards will be found to be too widely opened when the left hand plays the melody on the great key-board and the right on the swell, the stops remaining unchanged. Another points out that if, with a single stop or combination of stops, one runs over the key-board ascending the effect is of a *crescendo*. This would indicate that the organ-builder intentionally makes the higher pipes louder instead of keeping them of equal loudness as assumed previously, and also shows that the ear is more sensitive to high notes than to low ones under the conditions in which music is heard, whatever the case may be with foghorns heard at sea and reported by Allard.

Some time after the preceding experiments had been discussed and reported on Mr. F. H. Hastings kindly furnished the writer with a copy of Töpfer's great work,* and a summary of his views may fitly be connected with this paper. Through many hundred pages the author discusses the theory of organ pipes and gives formulæ for their dimensions, and for the quantity of wind they require. He determined this last experimentally by the method already described, using a bellows of 63 cubic feet capacity; 9 min. 57 sec. were required for this volume of air to leak out under a pressure of 3.2 Weimar inches of water ($= 76^{\text{mm}}$), (II, 95). The experiments must have been very tedious with so large a bellows; they are open to the criticism that the leakage is greater than the wind-consumption of any pipe, except a few of the largest ones; so errors of observation make large errors in the final result, as previously pointed out.

The author's theory on the subject is curious. He says (II, 65) pipes of equal length consume volumes of wind proportioned to the squares of their diameter, and those of the same diameter quantities inversely proportional to the square root of their length, [or directly proportional to the square root of the vibration frequency].

$$\text{Therefore} \quad Q = K \frac{D}{\sqrt{L}}$$

$Q\sqrt{L} \div D^2 = K' =$ coefficient which measures "intensity of vibration."

$Q\sqrt{L} \div \text{area of mouth} = K'' =$ coefficient which measures "sharpness of tone."

Q is expressed in Weimar cu. in. per sec.

K' is found to range from 68 to 110, average 85 :

K'' from 394 to 536, average 450.

* J. G. Töpfer: *Lehrbuch der Orgelbaukunst*. Weimar, 1855. About 1,800 pages and 130 plates folio. Mr. Hastings calls it "by far the most complete book on organ building."

For all the pipes of any given stop K' and K'' should remain constant (pp. 99, 112). This assumption underlies his elaborate table of "normal scales." But his experiments do not seem to establish this constancy. Thus, for the 16 ft. Principal:

| | Length. | Q. | K' . | K'' . |
|-------|---------|------|--------|----------------|
| c' | 20" | 61.5 | 91.7 | 496 |
| c'' | 40"3''' | 99 | 72.5 | 408 |
| E'' | 82.6 | 177 | 58 | 352 |
| E' | 100.4 | 162 | 25.6 | 165 tone dull. |

In other cases the values of K' and K'' vary considerably without showing any regular increase.

The second constant, K'' , appears to be in some sense a measure of the quality of the note, the note being duller as K'' is smaller. For pipes of the same length obviously K' is proportioned to the mass of air used per unit section of the pipe, and so to the energy of vibration at any point *within* the pipe, if we make the violent assumption of equal efficiency for pipes of all diameters. In the same way K'' is proportioned to the energy of vibration at the mouth. But we are not concerned with the intensity of vibration *in* the pipe; we want the external effect due to the total cross-section.

The introduction of the square root of the length has no physical meaning or justification that I can discover; but it is needed to make all parts of Topfer's theory hang together. This may be shown as follows: Assuming equal temperament and that diameters double at the 17th pipe, and putting a for the diameter of any pipe, the diameter of the n th pipe above becomes:

gain, it is found he tells us (p. 153–4) that in practice the quantities of wind used are nearly as 1:2 for the 8ve, sometimes less, and fortifies himself by a quotation from Chladni *Akustik*, p. 233): that if two tones of different pitch are to have equal effect the forces which each vibration exerts must be inversely as its vibration-frequency; but this force is proportional to the mass of air used; therefore Q varies inversely as n .

By the proceeding formula

$$Q = K'D^2L^{-\frac{1}{2}}; q = K'd^2l^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

If the pipes are an 8ve apart $L = 2l$ and $Q = 2q$:

Then
$$\frac{Q}{q} = \frac{D^2}{d^2} \sqrt{\frac{l}{L}} = 2 = \frac{D^2}{d^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\therefore D^2 = d^2 \sqrt{8} = 2.83d^2; D = d \sqrt[4]{8} = d \times 2^{\frac{3}{4}}$$

This proof is clearly very unsatisfactory; but the “scale” thus determined, and published by Töpfer in 1832, has been largely used by organ builders. By it pipes 4 8ves, 48 semitones apart, have diameters in the ratio of 1:8, or pipes 16 semitones apart, a major 10th, are in the ratio of 1:2.

Another scale may be had by letting the 16th pipe (15 semitones) have the double diameter; the ratio for the 8ve is then 1:3, or more accurately $1:\sqrt[5]{16} = 1:3.032$. But the bass pipes have too little wind.

If, on the other hand, the 18th pipe (17 semitones) have the double (or half) diameter, the ratio is $1:4^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1:2.661$; the higher pipes are relatively “sharper.” This defect may be corrected by cutting their mouths lower, and conversely for the low pipes, remembering that for “gleiche Klangstärke” the quantity of wind and therefore the area of mouth must be in the ratio of $1:\sqrt{8}$ for the 8ve (p. 244). If, in the last case, the ratio of height of mouth to breadth be for c' 0.25, it will be for c 0.23, for C 0.41.

Another scale might be formed doubling the diameter at the 19th pipe; the same correction is to be made but its execution is doubtful. A uniform quality is the first condition in a stop (p. 295).

The author then goes on to apply his theories to the laying down of several “normal scales;” these all have 121 pipes, 60 each way from No. 61 assumed $27'''$ (53^{mm}) diameter. In these tables we find, for example, with the ratio of sections:

| | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| $1:\sqrt{8} = 1:2.83$ | diam. No. 1, $363.2'''$ | No. 61, $27'''$ | No. 121, $2'''$ |
| $1:8/3 = 1:2.67$ | 311.8 | 27 | 2.3 |
| $1:5/2 = 1:2.5$ | 272.1 | 27 | 2.7 |

From these 121 theoretical diameters for each scale a consecutive series to be chosen for each stop. He finds in practice that for a large number of stops the first ratio is suitable; for an ordinary Principal c' should have the diameter of No. 62; for a Wide Principal, No. 58 is suitable. But for many stops this ratio is not satisfactory; the tone must be fuller in the upper parts; for a given list of stops the ratio $1:2.67$ is better; the diameter of c' ranges between No. 55 for the Wide Principal Bass, and No. 77 for the Viola d'Amour. For the Pedal stops and some others he advises the ratio $1:2.5$

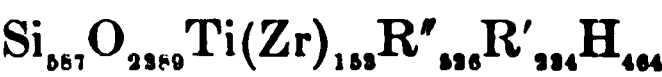
This is a very brief summary of the portions of Töpfer's voluminous work that relate to the physical side of organ building. It does not appear that the questions involved have been thought out from the standpoint of the physicist, or that the author's views are entirely consistent. Mr. Bosanquet credits to Töpfer the law that the quantities of wind belonging to the same stop vary as the lengths of the pipes. I have not been able to find any statement to this effect more definite than the one already quoted from p. 153-4, that the quantities of wind used are nearly as $1:2$ for the 8ve, sometimes more, sometimes less; but on p. 200 he gives the theoretical quantities for the successive C's through 9 octaves, and the ratio for the 8ve I find to be $1:1.99$. But on the other hand he states positively, as already quoted, that the quantity of wind must be as $1:\sqrt{8}$ for the 8ve; that is, as the sections of the pipes in his first "normal scale." In other words, his most definite statement makes the quantities for the 8ve as $1:\sqrt{8}$; his alleged law and Mr. Bosanquet's experiments give the ratio $1:\sqrt[3]{8}$, and my experiments give the ratio $1:\sqrt[3]{8}$; these

on that it was thought a new analysis would be not t interest notwithstanding the fact that material from ie region had already been analyzed by König.*

astrophyllite occurs in large, brittle, micaceous blades, to brownish yellow in color, and perfectly free from d minerals, such as zircon; the only foreign matter on the ends or sides of the blades which were in contact e containing rock ; so that pure material for analysis idily obtained. In this analysis the zirconia was sep- by a modification of the hydrogen peroxide method and d directly, being subsequently identified qualitatively. mparison with this analysis, those made by König and kström† are added in the table below. König's being e previously referred to, of material from the same and Bäckström's of the Eikaholmen mineral.

| Eakins. | | König. | | Bäckström. | |
|--------------|------------------|-------------|------------------|--------------|------------------|
| Analysis. | Molecular ratio. | Analysis. | Molecular ratio. | Analysis. | Molecular ratio. |
| 0.34 | .001 | 0.80 | .002 | | |
| 35.23 | .587 | 34.68 | .578 | 33.02 | .550 |
| 11.40 | .143 | 13.58 | .170 | 11.11 | .139 |
| 1.21 | .010 | 2.20 | .018 | 3.65 | .030 |
| 3.73 | .024 | 6.56 | .041 | 2.53 | .016 |
| tr. | | 0.70 | .007 | 0.98 | .009 |
| 29.02 | .403 | 26.10 | .362 | 21.76 | .302 |
| 5.52 | .078 | 3.48 | .049 | 11.96 | .169 |
| 0.22 | .004 | | | 1.26 | .023 |
| 0.13 | .003 | 0.30 | .008 | 0.92 | .023 |
| 5.42 | .058 | 5.01 | .053 | 5.78 | .062 |
| 3.63 | .059 | 2.54 | .041 | 2.77 | .045 |
| 4.18 | .232 | 3.54 | .197 | 3.47 | .193 |
| | | CuO .42 | .006 | F 0.97 | .051 |
| <hr/> 100.03 | | <hr/> 99.91 | | <hr/> 100.18 | |

a a discussion of these analyses of Bäckström and Brögger deduces the general formula: R'',R',Si(SiO₄)₂, rophyllite. It will be seen that my analysis closely is this formula, agreeing with it better in fact than from which it was derived. Calculating the small t of ferric oxide present in with the R'' group, the lar ratios of my analysis give the following elementary tions :



duces to :

. Am. Phil. Soc. Philada., xvi, 509, 1877.
a by Brögger in:--Groth's Zeitschrift, vol. xvi. W. C. Brögger, Die m der Syenitpegmatitgänge, etc.



which is quite close to $\text{R}''\text{R}'\text{Ti}(\text{SiO}_3)_8$, the excess of the R' group is presumably due to the percentage of water being somewhat too large, this may result from incipient alteration of the mineral, which may also be the cause of the variation in color.

II. *Tscheffkinite.*

A fragment of this rare mineral was last year sent to the National Museum by Mr. Horace M. Engle, of Roanoke, Va. And upon its identification he very kindly presented all at his disposal for the purpose of investigation; in addition to some small fragments there was one large mass, which before breaking weighed over three and one-half kilograms, most of it now being in the museum collection. It was found in Bedford Co., Va., a point considerably farther south than the locality of the material analyzed by Price.* The various pieces of this tscheffkinite when found were all more or less rounded nodules, with a superficial brownish yellow ochreous coating, evidently an alteration product, which at some later date may be made the subject of investigation to endeavor to determine the method of alteration. The beginning of this alteration was also seen in the numerous fissure planes developed in breaking up these nodules. Examination of a fresh surface showed a distinctly banded structure of lustrous black and dull black material, the bands varying from mere lines to over five millimeters in width. As well as could be these two differently appearing substances were separated and each analyzed by

formula, a result quite in accordance with the evidence furnished by the microscopical examination of sections. For this purpose chips were taken showing both bands, but as in the case of the chemical analysis, they were seen to be practically the same.

| | I. | | II. | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|
| | Analysis. | Molecular ratio. | Analysis. | Molecular ratio. |
| Ta ₂ O ₅ | 0.08 | | 0.08 | |
| SiO ₂ | 20.21 | .337 | 21.49 | .358 |
| TiO ₂ | 18.78 | .235 | 18.99 | .237 |
| ZrO ₂ | <i>tr.</i> (?) | | <i>tr.</i> (?) | |
| ThO ₂ | 0.85 | .003 | 0.75 | .003 |
| (Y, Er) ₂ O ₃ | 1.82* | .006 | 1.64† | .005 |
| (La, Di) ₂ O ₃ | 19.72 | .059 | 17.16 | .052 |
| Ce ₂ O ₃ | 20.05 | .061 | 19.08 | .058 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 3.60 | .035 | 3.65 | .036 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 1.88 | .012 | 2.89 | .018 |
| FeO | 6.91 | .096 | 5.92 | .082 |
| CaO | 4.05 | .072 | 5.24 | .094 |
| MgO | 0.55 | .014 | 0.48 | .012 |
| Na ₂ O | 0.06 | .001 | 0.04 | .001 |
| H ₂ O | 0.94 | .052 | 2.06 | .114 |
| | 99.50 | | 99.47 | |

Specific gravity, 4.33 at 27°.

Specific gravity, 4.38 at 22°·2.

I am indebted to Mr. Whitman Cross, of the U. S. Geological Survey, for the following notes on the thin sections: "The sections consist mainly of reddish and yellowish brown transparent amorphous substance, apparently the original material, this is traversed in all directions by cracks from which there has proceeded a decomposition producing a reddish brown opaque ochreous matter which fills the cracks and replaces the original material so that in certain spots there is now merely a network of the two substances. In each section there are two parallel bands of secondary minerals nothing corresponding to which was detected in the chips before the sections were made. These bands consist chiefly of two colorless minerals, the more abundant occurring in irregular grains closely resembling calcite in strength of refraction and double refraction; the other occurs in rounded grains and is probably sphene. In addition to the two colorless minerals in these bands, there also appear two brownish substances, one of which has distinct prisms without terminal planes, shows strong pleochroism and its absorption parallel to the vertical axis is so strong as to make it opaque, while at right angles to this axis it is yellow-brown. More abundant than this prismatic mineral is one occurring in apparent flakes

* Molecular weight=308.

† Molecular weight=312.

of reddish-brown color, it is doubly refracting, but not strongly pleochroic, and cannot be identified with any of the substances already mentioned. Adjacent to these bands, and replacing the amorphous material to varying distances is still another substance, in general appearance similar to the prismatic mineral, but evidently different as it shows no very marked absorption. This mineral is also strongly pleochroic, varying from yellow-brown to chestnut brown. All of it in the sections seems to have a uniform crystallographic orientation, the cause of this uniformity not being apparent. Its relations to the amorphous substance are similar to those which I have observed in several instances between crystalline allanite and the amorphous variety."

The microscopical examination having shown this tscheffkinite to be such a mixture, it became desirable to examine others in the same way.

The only one available for this purpose was that analyzed by Price, a specimen of which is in the National Museum collection. This specimen has the same general appearance and banded structure as my own. Chips were taken from it for sections which Mr. Cross examined and found to be in every respect similar to the other, about the only noticeable difference being in Price's material a somewhat greater development of the opaque ochreous decomposition product of the transparent amorphous substance than in mine, and a lesser development of the colorless minerals.

Taking into consideration the results of this work, and the manifest contradictions of most of the earlier analyses, it seems reasonable to conclude that, unless one of the earlier analyses can be shown to have been made on pure material, the so-called

ART. V.—*The Minerals in hollow Spherulites of Rhyolite from Glade Creek, Wyoming*; by J. P. IDDINGS and S. L. PENFIELD.

THE occurrence of fayalite with quartz, tridymite and soda-orthoclase or sanidine in the lithophysæ and hollow spherulites of the obsidian at Obsidian Cliff, Yellowstone National Park,* has been described by one of the writers of the present paper, the mineralogical investigation of the fayalite and sanidine having been carried on by the other writer. Recently we have had occasion to call attention to the occurrence of fayalite in obsidian at Lipari and Vulcano in the Mediterranean,† and have observed that the modes of occurrence are alike in both regions, and that the causes leading to the crystallization of fayalite in these magmas must have been the same, namely: the action of superheated vapors, presumably of water, upon the magmas before their final consolidation and cooling.

In the present paper we wish to contribute further to the knowledge of these aqueo-igneous products in siliceous lavas, by describing a somewhat different development of hollow spherulites in rhyolite at the forks of Glade Creek, a tributary of the Snake River, just south of the boundary of the Yellowstone National Park. This locality was visited by us in the summer of 1886. The rhyolite forms a high bluff of massive rock, exhibiting great contortion of banding or planes of flow. The spur between the two branches of the stream rises some 1200 feet above the valley, and presents a section of the great rhyolite sheet which forms the mass of Pitchstone Plateau, lying to the north.

The rock at the forks of Glade Creek is dark gray, dull, lusterless and lithoidal, with a rough hackly fracture. It carries many phenocrysts of a white plagioclase, less numerous glassy sanidines and quartzes, and many rusted crystals, which prove to be more or less altered augites. Through this mass are scattered cavities with light gray or white walls, which are partially filled with crystals. The cavities vary in size from that of a walnut to almost nothing. They are irregular in shape, but the spherical form of the light colored walls suggests at once that they are the cavities of very hollow spherulites. They are, in fact, wide-gaping spherulites like some of those found at Obsidian Cliff.‡ Occasionally there are

* J. P. Iddings, Obsidian Cliff, Yellowstone National Park, Seventh Annual Report of the Director of the U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, 1888.

† Iddings and Penfield, Fayalite in the obsidian of Lipari. This Journal, vol. xl, July, 1890.

‡ l. c. p. 264, and Plate XII, figs. 1 and 5.

indications of spherical zones near the outer margin of the shell, but no radial fibrillation can be observed macroscopically. There is nothing in the arrangement of the comparatively large crystals within the cavity which suggests either a radiation from the center, or the concentric shelly structure of lithophysæ.

An examination with the microscope proves that there is a radial fibrillation in the outer shell of these spherulites. And since certain of the minerals which are characteristic of the central portion are found in the shell also, it is evident that the formation of the outer and inner parts of these spherulites was contemporaneous. There are also small irregular cavities containing the same well developed crystals, which have no definite spherulitic walls, but are surrounded by white crystalline margins, which extend irregularly into the surrounding rock. The same thing also occurs in small crystalline patches and streaks in the ground-mass of the rock, like the more crystalline portions of the laminated lithoidite at Obsidian Cliff.* The massive rhyolite at Glade Creek also passes to the westward into laminated lithoidal rhyolite with open layers filled with the same minerals as those in the hollow spherulites.

The light colored crystalline portions just mentioned, when examined with a lens, are found to be dotted with minute round pits about as large as the point of a pin. At first sight they appear to be small colorless grains of some mineral like quartz, but closer investigation shows them to be hollow. Their relation to the crystalline material about them is revealed by a microscopical study of the rock.

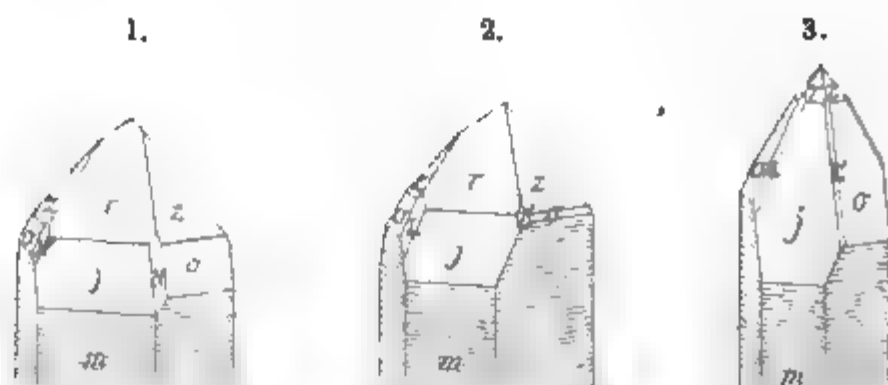
Thin sections of the rock show it to be a rhyolite similar to much of the lithoidal rhyolite of the neighboring region, except for a greater amount of quartz phenocrysts. The neph-

lites are distinctly radially fibrous, the rays being relatively coarse or prismatic. The outline of the spherules is not evenly circular, but irregularly jagged, especially when they adjoin areas of tridymite and quartz. Here the rays of the spherules develop into definite prismatic crystals, and have the optical characters of orthoclase in prisms elongated parallel to the inclined axis, α . They have a slight extinction angle, reaching 10° , and have the axis of greatest elasticity parallel to the length of the prism. The spherulites, therefore, behave as though made up of optically negative prisms. In one rock section they appear to have more of a granophyric structure, with a feather-like texture within the feldspar prisms. The fine fibers producing this effect do not reach the end of the best developed prisms, leaving them terminated by clear feldspar substances, as in the case of the granophyric phenocryst in the rhyolite of Eureka, Nevada, described in the article on Obsidian Cliff already referred to.* In these spherulites the presence of quartz within the feldspar is indicated by this micro-structure, but in the first mentioned spherulites there is nothing to suggest its presence, except the highly siliceous nature of the rock. Since it is only the marginal terminations of the feldspar prisms which are determinable as such, the central portion of the spherulites may be more complex without its being recognized, for a small amount of quartz would not materially affect the optical character of the feldspar. The light colored, crystalline portions of the rock with the minute pits are seen under the microscope to be more highly crystallized parts of the ground-mass. They combine the spherulitic structure with a more or less granular one. The little cavities are found to be hollows at the centre of small feldspar spherulites, which are made up of feldspar prisms whose ends project irregularly inward into the cavities and outward into the adjoining minerals. The cavities appear to be minute spots once occupied by vapor or some liquid, around which feldspar crystallized in prisms radiating outward. In the crystalline patches the tridymite lies in various orientations, and through it in all directions run what look like transparent needles, which in some cases also radiate out from the coarser micro-spherulites. They are dull between crossed nicols, and might easily be mistaken for apatite, but their optical characters are also those of sanidine prisms that have developed parallel to the axis of greatest elasticity. This is shown to be the case in a thin section of another rhyolite in which the same structure has been developed on a somewhat larger scale. In the rhyolite from Glade Creek, quartz some-

* L. c., p. 275, Plate XV, fig. 5.

times occupies the place of tridymite between the feldspar crystals.

The mineral which is most abundant in the hollow spherulites is quartz, occurring in stout crystals, seldom over 2^{mm} in diameter (in one instance 5^{mm}), very transparent and with a pale smoky color; also in slender white prisms, 10^{mm} long. The latter are sometimes clear and transparent in part, but are mostly full of cracks, and many of them are covered with a crust of hyalite. The hyalite is isotropic, and has minute microlites of feldspar scattered through it. Both the stout, clear quartz crystals, and the slender white prisms occur together in the same spherulite, and in a number of instances it was observed that the clear crystals are deposited on a nearly flat side of the cavity, while the white prisms, intersecting in all directions, make up a sort of net work which rises above it in a dome-shaped mass. The first impression is that the transparent quartz crystallized in a shallow basin in a liquid while the upper portion crystallized in a vapor. This hypothesis is, however, untenable, since in some cases, the transparent crystals in the hollows of one rock specimen,



rhombohedrons j , $30\bar{3}2$, $\frac{3}{2}$ and σ , $03\bar{3}2$, $-\frac{3}{2}$ and narrow trapezohedral faces N and $L \pm \frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$, which lie in the zone between j and σ and also in the zone z , r and m . The rhombohedrons j and σ are not mentioned by G. Rose* in his classical paper on quartz. Des Cloizeaux,† in his very extensive monograph on the crystallization of quartz was the first to observe these forms. During his investigation he added twenty-one new positive rhombohedrons to the seven which were already known. Of the $+\frac{3}{2}$ rhombohedron j he says: "this has been found on two crystals from Traversella, on a large crystal from Brazil, and upon a little crystal from Ala. Its measurement is a little uncertain as it always presents rounded faces. Among the considerations which favor the acceptance of this rhombohedron is the occurrence of the negative $\frac{3}{2}$ form." He also added twenty-five new negative rhombohedrons to the five which were already known. Of the $-\frac{3}{2}$ rhombohedron σ he says: "this rhombohedron has been observed upon twenty-three crystals from Traversella, and upon many crystals from Valais. The mean of fifty-four measurements, in spite of a slight rounding of the faces, leaves no doubt of its symbol." On the crystals from Glade Creek both j and σ are perfect as regards luster and freedom from striations. They may be detected on nearly all crystals and sometimes they are largely developed. Figures 1 and 2 represent the relative size and development of these faces on two of the transparent stout crystals which were detached for measurement, and figure 3, the greater development of them at one end of a slender white prism. In the majority of cases, the edges between j and σ are replaced by trapezohedral faces having the simple parameter relation $\frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$; moreover all of the four possible trapezohedral forms with the above parameter relation were observed. On the right-handed crystal represented in fig. 1, N , $21\bar{3}2$, $+r \frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$, and N' , $3\bar{2}12$, $-r \frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$ occur, while on the left-handed crystals represented in figs. 2 and 3, L , $3\bar{1}\bar{2}2$, $+l \frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$ and L' , $12\bar{3}2$, $-l \frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$ occur. DesCloizeaux also observed these forms and says of $N + \frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$ "this very rare form has been observed only upon the very remarkable crystal from Brazil. As it is very narrow and a little rounded its measurement could not be made very exactly; however its angle upon r , calculated for the symbol here adopted, differs very little from the mean of the observation and its very simple symbol, being the inverse of the probable face L , $-\frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$, point to its existence." Of L , $-\frac{3}{2}-\frac{3}{2}$, indicated by DesCloizeaux with (?) as a probable but not certain form, he says: "this very simple symbol can be applied to a face observed upon many

* Abh. Akad. Berlin, 1844, p. 217.

† Ann. Ch. Phys., 1855, p. 129.

crystals from Traversella. This face is always brilliant but so much rounded that upon measuring upon z one can indifferently arrive at a number of approximations according as one stops at the upper, central or lower part of the broad reflection which it furnishes." On the crystals from Glade Creek, N and N' and L and L' are faultless as regards luster and absence of striations and rounding. An idea of the prominence of these faces may be obtained from figs. 1, 2 and 3 where their relative size and development on three of the measured crystals has been preserved as far as possible. They undoubtedly occur both as positive r and negative r , and as positive l and negative l ; their persistency in replacing all of the edges between j and σ would indicate this as well as the results of an experiment in etching one of the crystals with hydrofluoric acid. The crystal represented in fig. 1, was thus proved to be a right-handed twin. The greater part of r and j in front, and all of N were positive, as was also the greater portion of the faces lettered z and σ , the twinning boundaries running very unequally over these faces; while the face lettered N' was both positive and negative, the positive part being deeply etched while the acid had almost no action on the negative portion. Left-handed crystals were not etched, but it is safe to infer from the development of L and L' , that they are both positive and negative. Right and left forms were not observed in the same crystal. On the goniometer the reflections from all of the faces except m were very perfect, and the following measurements were made.

| | Calculated. | Measured. |
|--------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| $z \wedge r$ | $46^{\circ} 15' 52''$ | $46^{\circ} 15'$ |

made in the vertical zone m, j, r , over the apex of the crystal on z, σ, m . The prism faces were always so much striated that no satisfactory measurements could be made from them. The measurements are as follows:

| | Calculated. | | Measured. | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|---------|---------|--|
| $r \wedge z$ over base, | 103° 34' | 103° 35' | 103° 33' | 103° 34' | 103° 35' | 103° 35' | | | |
| $r \wedge j$ or $z \wedge \sigma$, | 10 31 | 10 42 | 10 47 | 10 35 | 10 29 | 10 45 | 10° 35' | 10° 19' | |
| $r \wedge z$ adjoining, | 46 16 | 46 17 | | | | | | | |
| $r \wedge N$, | 17 23 | 17 19 | | | | | | | |

On several crystals a second rhombohedron having the symbol $\frac{10}{7}$, (10·0. $\bar{1}0\cdot7$) was observed, occurring either alone with r, z and m , or between j and r and σ and z . It had a relatively large size and gave distinct reflections; its measurement on to r and z , is as follows:

| Calculated. | Measured. | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|---------|--------|---------|---------|
| 9° 21' | 9° 45', | 9° 25', | 9° 38' | 9° 52', | 9° 43'. |

The occurrence in the hollow spherulites of this very unusual development of quartz, as well as its association with the rare mineral fayalite, may be taken to indicate that the crystals were formed under conditions which do not usually prevail. On the highly modified quartz crystals from Alexander Co., N. C., j, σ and L were frequently observed by vom Rath,* but the crystals from Glade Creek, and Obsidian Cliff, are very different in showing these rare forms well-developed on otherwise very simple crystals.

Tridymite is present in some of the cavities in characteristic crossed twins, and is abundant in thin sections of the rock.

The most noticeable mineral next to quartz is fayalite. It forms stout crystals about 1^{mm} long with very much the same habit as those represented by fig. 2, in our paper "On the occurrence of Fayalite in the lithophysæ of obsidian and rhyolite in the Yellowstone National Park,"† or by fig. 54 in the paper on Obsidian Cliff already cited.‡ They have undergone more or less alteration to iron oxide and are now opaque and black. Some are still transparent at the centre. When tested chemically they give decided reactions for both iron and magnesium. This may indicate that the unaltered fayalite is rich in magnesium. There is not sufficient unaltered material at hand to undertake a complete chemical analysis. The occurrence of the fayalite at Glade Creek is quite the same as that in other hollow spherulites in the rhyolites at various localities in the Yellowstone National Park.

* Zeitschr. Kryst., x, p. 156.

‡ L. c. p. 271.

† This Journal, vol. xxx, July, 1885, p. 59.

In some of the more irregular cavities of the rock, at Glade Creek, there are accumulations of sanidine crystals of very small size. Occasionally they exhibit a blue iridescence, and when magnified are seen to have the same crystal habit as those in the lithoidite of Obsidian Cliff,* that is, they are thin tablets parallel to the basal plane, with the clinopinacoid, prism and two orthodomes less highly developed. The chemical analysis of these uncommon sanidines from Obsidian Cliff showed the presence of one molecule of soda to one of potash. In some of the hollow spherulites there are very small crystals of hornblende about $\frac{1}{2}$ mm long. They form stout prisms with brilliant faces, and appear to be terminated by the basal plane and unit pyramid. In thin section they are brown. They are not found in most of the cavities. Biotite is also observed, in a few cases, in very small particles built up of thin hexagonal crystals with parallel orientation. They yield an almost uniaxial negative interference figure between crossed nicols. Both the hornblende and biotite occur sparingly in small crystals within the groundmass of the rock. These minerals are not found in the same cavities with fayalite.

In conclusion, we find that in the rhyolite of Glade Creek, as in the obsidian of Obsidian Cliff, fayalite occurs in association with abundant quartz, as the result of the mineralizing action of vapors in the cooling acid lava. The quartz in both localities has a peculiar development, remarkable alike for its simplicity, rarity and perfection. These minerals are accompanied by an uncommon form of sanidine, and by tridymite. Moreover in certain hollow spherulites the fayalite is wanting, and in its place are hornblende and biotite.

reason that it is more likely to be found on tree trunks than in veins. During the winter the excellent specimen used in the preparation of the accompanying illustration was forwarded by Mr. Frost, who stated that it was cut from a live pine tree near Eagle Lake. Bits of adhering bark can be seen in figure 1, which is a little less than half size. Professor Stillman generously placed at my disposal a piece of the original material and their comparison and study were taken up.

As the description of the "mineral resin" answers equally well for the recently obtained specimen it is quoted here. "It presents a nearly white mass, friable, light and porous, containing much enclosed air so that it floats on water like cork. On fracture it presents a slightly fibrous structure. Under the microscope it exhibits a two-fold structure—a quantity of very fine irregular fibers permeating a mass of a brittle, amorphous, structureless substance." Nothing more need be added, save to call attention to the concentric form of growth and to the remnants of tubes.

Macroscopically and chemically the two specimens appear to be identical. No improvement of Professor Stillman's careful analysis was attempted, and its duplication was only carried to the point of identification. Both substances agree in melting imperfectly at 140° and in softening at temperatures below 100; they are insoluble in water; 86 to 90 per cent dissolves in alcohol—the solutions being of a slightly yellow color, marked bitter taste and acid reaction; residues from solution are white and amorphous; the alcoholic extracts burn with smoky flame leaving a trace of ash; they are much less soluble in ether than in alcohol. Professor Stillman found further that his material was soluble in caustic potash, and from such solutions a purified tasteless mass could be precipitated by hydrochloric acid, also that the filtrate evaporated to dryness yielded a "waxy substance" of intensely bitter taste. Taking into account hygroscopic moisture and ash, his analysis gave:

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------|
| Carbon | 64.46 |
| Hydrogen (not in water) | 8.75 |
| Oxygen " " | 22.80 |
| H ₂ O | 3.87 |
| Ash | 0.12 |
| <hr/> | |
| 100.00 | |

Dr. H. N. Stokes, of the Chemical Division of the Geological Survey, gave it such consideration as pressure of work would permit, and says in regard to it: "In continuous extraction with alcohol the 'bernardinite' left a residue of 7.56 per cent, and your specimen a residue of 6.08 per cent. The appearance of the residue under the microscope is the same in

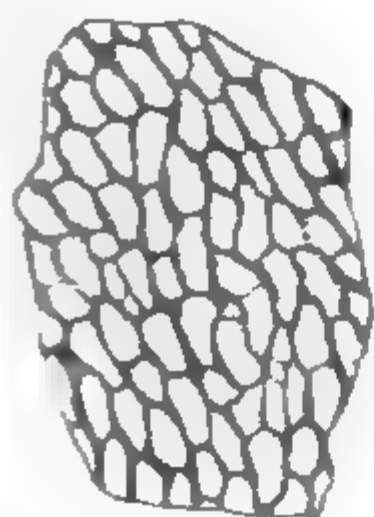


Fig. 4.

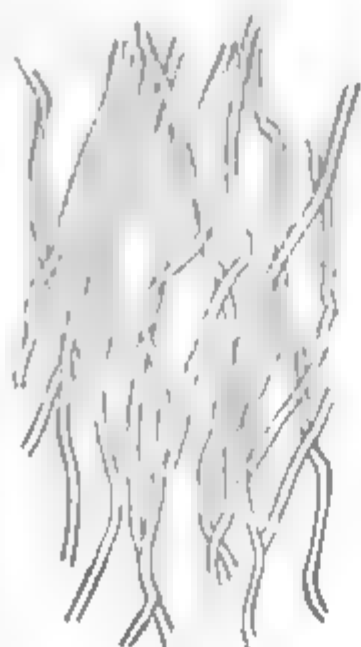
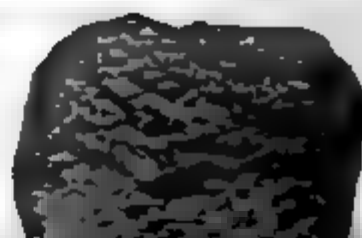


Fig. 5.



Fig. 1.



, consisting of fine fibers, mixed with some granules. It had time to prove that the substance [fiber] is cell-like as it appears to be, being insoluble in all neutral and unacted upon by bromine water. The alcoholic solution being evaporated to dryness, left a crystalline residue. Some of the residue is crystalline—the crystals being identical with some amorphous substance. The crystalline substance has the appearance of crystalline acids, which form soluble crystalline salts. The appearance in each case is the same, and I therefore hesitate to pronounce the two specimens identical.”

A micrographic microscope showed clearly the structural difference of the substances and suggested a fungous origin, and no other authority was sought in Mr. F. H. Knowlton whose examination of a fragment of each piece, with a biological microscope, not only confirmed previous testimony as to identity, but attested their fungous character with certainty.

Knowing that the sameness of the specimens has been established, a brief reference to the nature, origin and structure of the substance may be given.

Professor Stillman expressed the belief* that it was a resinous secretion which, having fallen from some species of conifer, and covered with debris, lost all traces of volatile and essential matter, became permeated and splintered by a fungous growth and being mixed with surface soil, would easily be mistaken by untrained observers for material *in situ*. Considering the fact that Professor Stillman did not see the site (?) in place and that the specimens available for examination were fragmental, stained and weathered, it is probable he should have been able to give so plain an account of its character and source. But the truth of the matter probably is, that the fungous growth is responsible for the destruction of the resin and not the resin for the fungus growth.

Through the kindness of Professor Gallaway of the Agricultural Department, the large specimen was referred to Mr. J. B. Planchon, Plainfield, N. J., an authority on fungi, and it was by him recognized as the fungus “*Polyporus officinalis* Fries.” He has noted its home is on the pine tree and it probably covers a wide area, for it is found on *Pinus strobus* of Michigan, and a specimen has just been sent to the National Museum from Wyoming. A glance at figure 2, which is about natural size, shows clearly the ring-like growth and the arrangement of tubes. Figure 3 is from a photograph of a small fragment of Professor Stillman's original material and is full size. A microscopic examination of a thin section shows the structure represented in figure 4. A somewhat regular arrangement of granules is seen (indicated by the lighter color), which

* This Jour., vol. xx, page 93.

are apparently enclosed in a network of fibers. The granules are about a millimeter in width and vary from two to three millimeters in length, and when carefully removed and fractured they break up into transparent irregular particles. If the granules are dissolved in alcohol there remains a mass of microscopic mycelial threads indicated by the hair lines in figure 4, and more clearly shown in figure 5. Miss Southworth,* of the Agricultural Department, after studying both specimens, declared them to be identical, and found that these microscopic fibers are arranged in a more or less parallel manner, and sometimes great numbers are closely bound together or wound around each other, forming a distinct branching cord up to half a millimeter in diameter. The fibers are also branching, wavy in outline, with thick colorless wall, narrow thread-like lumen, and occasional swellings. They are often terminated by forms such as are seen in figure 6, and there are other features which must, however, be left to the mycologist to investigate.

Just what function this resinous material plays in the life of the plant is not now known. Its presence can hardly be accidental, for its association with the fungus is persistent over a wide area. It is difficult to conceive of a fungus penetrating a mass of resin with such regularity. It would seem more probable that the irritation of its presence caused an exudation from the tree which was appropriated by the fungus either for its nourishment or its preservation from destruction.

A final word concerning the supposed medicinal and historical character of the fungus may be interesting.

Mr. W. W. Calkins of Chicago, who has described a specimen obtained from Michigan, asserts that this substance is employed by lumbermen, and was used by soldiers during the

ART. VII. — *Development of Bilobites*; by CHARLES E. BEECHER, PH.D. (With Plate I.)

THE Linnean species so well known under the name of *Orthis biloba*, and so widely distributed in the Silurian rocks of the world, represents one of the very distinct members into which the *Orthis* group is now divided. It is much removed from ordinary *Orthis* in general external features, and only by means of developmental characters is it possible to arrive at any idea of its genetic history.

After having been referred to various genera, including *Anomia*, *Terebratula*, *Delthyris*, and *Spirifer*, by different authors prior to 1848, Davidson* first showed conclusively, from a study of the internal characters, that the true relations were with the genus *Orthis*. Its position has since remained unchallenged, and subsequent investigation has not brought forth any new characters, nor invalidated the results obtained by Davidson. The additional observations here made concerning the development of the shell, while adding to our knowledge of the species, merely serve to bind more closely this form to the group having the broad designation of *Orthis*. Prof. King in 1850† proposed the genus *Dicælosia* for this species, on account of its characteristic form, and authors disposed to divide *Orthis* have recognized this name. Since then, it has been shown that Linné gave the generic term *Bilobites* to the type species of King's genus, and this name is now generally adopted with the rank of a subgenus. The validity of the specific names applied to variations from the typical form is not of much moment in this place, although the geologic history and interpretation of these differences are of considerable interest. Two well-defined varieties or species are recognized in Sweden, and are represented in outline by figures 2 and 28, Plate I. The prevailing form in the Wenlock shales at Dudley, England, agrees with figure 28, and also represents the ordinary form from the Niagara Group of Indiana and New York. Each locality, however, presents minor differences, mainly of local interest, and seldom of varietal importance. In Western New York, besides the ordinary form with both valves convex there is found an arcuate, deeply bilobed variety, agreeing with the extreme of the Swedish *B. bilobus*, var. *Verneuillianus* Lm., represented in figure 2. The lobes of the New York variety are commonly more divergent, as shown

* Bull. Soc. Géol. France, 2d ser., vol. v, p. 321, t. 3, fig. 18, 1848.

† Monograph Permian fossils, page 106, 1850.

in the outline, figure 1. This form was recently described by Ringneberg, as *Orthis acutiloba*.*

The Lower Helderberg species known as *B. varicus* Conrad, sp., presents an amount of departure from typical *B. bilobus*, as would be anticipated from the change in the chronological and physical conditions of the species, combined with its extremely prolific development at this time. The abundance and comparatively large size of individuals clearly indicate most favorable conditions for their existence and multiplication, and, also, for the assumption and transmission of any varietal forms in harmony with the environment.

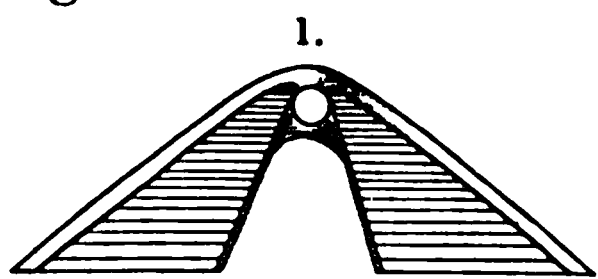
Mature individuals from Dudley, England, and Gotland, Sweden, represented by figure 28, correspond in all characters with specimens of *B. varicus* which are about half or two-thirds grown. After reaching the adult *bilobus* stage, *B. varicus* continues its growth, but this subsequent increment is geratologic in its nature, although such senile features are here the conditions of simple maturity or the completed ephellic stage. Evidences of this are seen in the gradual obsolescence of the pronounced lobation of the shell and the cessation of areal growth in the nealogue period. The form known as *B. bilobus*, var. *Verneuilianus*, Lin, from Gotland, shows a tendency to develop in the opposite direction, as the lobation becomes more and more pronounced with growth, and the shell exceeds in size the normal species. The decrease in the lobation of *B. varicus* is a degeneration towards an embryonic character, while the arrested areal development produces a condition of partial isomorphism resembling one of the higher groups of *Orthis*, such as *Rhipidomella* (*R. Michelini* Lévy).

It is to be noted, however, that the latter form is not a true *Bilobites*, but a distinct genus, and that the form

grown and fully developed specimens of *Bilobites varicus*, Conrad, sp., can still be picked up in considerable numbers in the soil formed of the decomposed limestones. The species, however, is not so abundant as formerly. Professor James Hall is authority for the statement (Pal. N. Y., vol. iii, p. 493), that forty thousand individuals were collected between 1843 and 1853, and about four thousand in the four following years. The young specimens have been obtained only by carefully examining the decomposed surfaces of the limestones, and by treating with hydrochloric acid slabs of rock in which the fossils are replaced by silica. After considerable labor and search, about a thousand individuals have been obtained. From this number, it has been possible to select a series of over forty specimens, showing stages of growth ranging from shells a little less than one-half a millimeter in length to a length of nine millimeters; thus representing the development between these limits by almost insensible gradations.

Developmental Changes in Bilobites varicus.

In the youngest specimens yet detected, measuring $.49^{\text{mm}}$ in length, and semi-elliptical in outline, the dorsal valve is longer than the ventral; the hinge is equal to the greatest width of the shell; both areas are high, subequal, and perforate by a triangular fissure in each valve. In rare instances, the pedicle covering, or pseudo-deltidium, is retained in young shells. Figure 1 of the ventral area, shows the fissure and pedicle



covering, with the foramen at the apex of the beak. The covering is soon absorbed or abraded during subsequent growth, and the pedicle then emerged through the fissure below.

None of these characters obtain in the nealagic or ephebolic stages, which are represented by a cordate, bilobed shell; dorsal valve shorter than the ventral; hinge line much shorter than the width of the shell, and an inconspicuous dorsal area without a fissure.

The series of outlines, figures 11 to 26, drawn to the same scale, illustrate both the important changes which take place in the general form, and the corresponding increase in size from stage to stage. The rounded frontal margin of figures 11 and 12, becomes straight in figure 13, and in figure 14 a gentle sinus is apparent, which is pronounced in figure 15, and thereafter is the conspicuous character of the entire shell up to the ephebolic stage represented by figure 23. Figures 24 and 25 show

that upon reaching maturity a geratologic tendency to obliterate the marginal sinns is initiated: thus degenerating to an embryonal condition of lobation similar to figure 14.

The length of the hinge line from an initial dimension equal to the greatest width of the shell becomes equal to but one-half the width of the shell in a specimen 3.5^{mm} wide; and in a full grown individual, as represented by figure 25, the hinge is not more than one-quarter the width of the shell. From having subequal areas, the change is rapid, so that in a very early stage, but two or three removes from the initial one of the series, the ventral area is the larger and the fissure higher. This ratio progressively increases, and after the shell reaches a length of 1.5^{mm}, the dorsal area ceases to be a conspicuous feature. All areal growth and hinge extension end in the middle nealagic period, and to this cause is due the great disparity between the length of the hinge and the width of the shell in epheboic individuals. The nepionic shells show some extension of the cardinal angles, but the auriculation does not become apparent until the lobation of the valves is initiated.

On account of the greater length of the incipient dorsal valve and consequent obliquity of the area, the fissure and area of that valve may be seen when the shell is viewed from the ventral side, as in figure 10, and, consequently, the ventral area is concealed from the dorsal aspect, as shown in figures 3-9, and 11-15. This is a remarkable reversion of characters, and one which appears to be of considerable significance from a phylogenetic standpoint.

The radiating striæ first appear on the lower half of the initial shell of the series, indicating that in an earlier condition, the shell was smooth. The striae appear in pairs. The first



These features are maintained until the nealagic stage represented by figure 15, after which arrested hinge extension and increasing areal growth in the ventral valve rapidly obliterate the early characters, and in addition, the growing lobation of the valves emphasizes the expression of *Bilobites*.

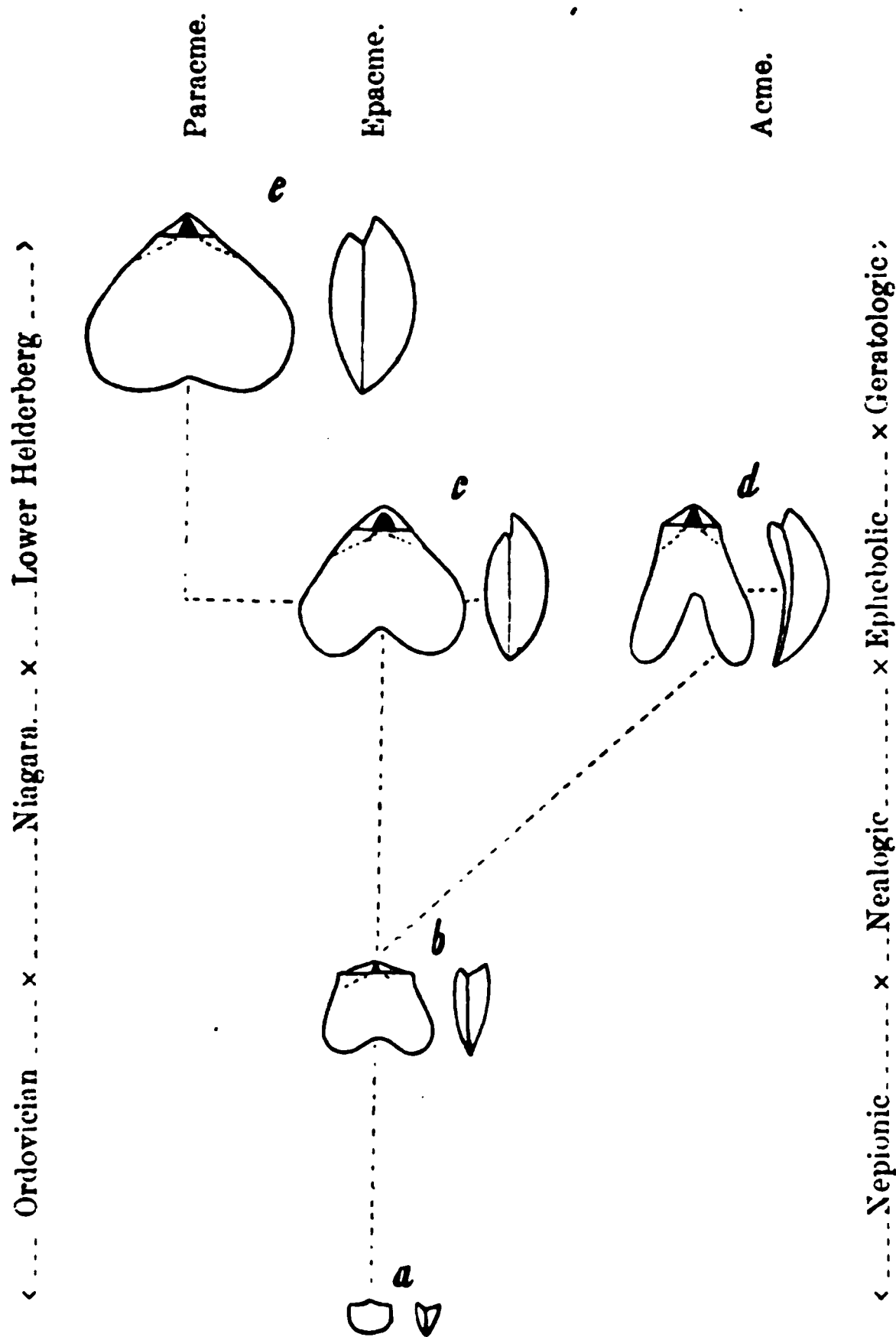


FIGURE 2.—Genesis of *Bilobites*.

- a. neopionic stage ($\times 4$). Ordovician type like *Platystrophia bifurcata*.
- b. nealagic period ($\times 4$) at which divergence begins.
- c. *Bilobites bilobus* ($\times 2$). Epacmic form. Niagara horizon.
- d. *Bilobites Vearneuillianus* ($\times 2$). Acmic form. Niagara horizon.
- e. *Bilobites varicus* ($\times 2$). Paracmic form. Lower Helderberg horizon.

The genesis of the species is represented in the accompanying illustrations, in which it is shown, that all these species are alike in their development up to an early nealagic period,

figure b. *B. Verneuili* (figure d. diverges at this point, progressively increasing its variation from the normal direct growth, as exemplified in *B. bilobus*, figure c. *B. varius*, figure e, passes through all the *bilobus* stages, and culminates in larger individuals, with less pronounced lobation of the shell.

The direct line of development, or the epacme, is represented by *B. bilobus*, and it is significant that this form also has the greatest geological and geographical distribution. Next, the divergent and indirect line, or acemic group, typified by *B. Verneuili* and *B. acutilobus*, is also widely distributed, but less so than the first. Finally, the paraemic, or geratologous form, *B. varius*, culminated and disappeared within very narrow time and regional limits.

Yale Museum, New Haven, Conn.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE I.

Bilobites acutilobus, Ringueberg.

FIGURE 1 —Outline of specimen from Niagara Group, Lockport, N. Y. x 4

Bilobites Verneuili, Lindstrom.

FIGURE 2 —Common elongate form from Upper Silurian, Gotland, Sweden. x 4.

Bilobites varius, Conrad.

FIGURE 3. —Dorsal view of youngest individual observed; showing inception of radiating stria and concealment of hinge areas. x 18.

FIGURE 4 —Profile of same showing depth and extent of both valves. x 18.

FIGURE 5 —Hinge view of preceding. x 18.

FIGURE 6 —Dorsal side of specimen showing beginning of anterior marginal sinus. x 18.

FIGURE 7. —Profile of same. x 18.

FIGURE 8 —Posterior view of same. x 18.

FIGURE 9 —Dorsal view of specimen figure 15 showing concealment of ventral



ART. VIII.—*Gmelinite from Nova Scotia*; by LOUIS V. PIRSSON.

THE zeolites of Nova Scotia have long been noted for the size and perfection of their crystals, and among them gmelinite has held a prominent place. Originally described by Jackson* under the name of ledererite, it was first proved to be identical with the gmelinite of European localities by Des Cloizeaux,† from crystallographic measurements. This was subsequently confirmed by analyses published by Marsh.‡ Analyses have also been published by A. B. Howe, referred to later. Beyond these observations there seems to have been no investigation of the crystal form and physical properties of the mineral from American localities. This has been undertaken chiefly upon material collected during the past summer at Pinnacle Island, one of the "Five Islands" in the Basin of Minas, Nova Scotia. An analysis, which was made to control the results of the investigation, having brought out some interesting facts, a discussion of the chemical composition has also been added. And since gmelinite has been referred by some authors, especially Tamnau§ and Streng,|| to chabazite, all points bearing on this question have been kept in mind and are here presented.

The gmelinite from Five Islands occurs in seams implanted in a greatly decomposed trap. The crystals, often of large size, vary in color from a very pale flesh-red to a strong reddish-brown. In thin section they are seen to be composed of a colorless outer shell or zone, inclosing a colored inner nucleus. In grinding the sections it was noticed that the outer shell was hard and tough, preserving the crystal boundaries, while the inner portion was spongy, cellular, somewhat friable and readily crumbled away. In large crystals the separation into parts of the colorless outer shell and the colored nucleus can be readily seen with the eye at a trihedral angle. There were no inclusions seen in thin section, only a slight discoloration along the cleavage cracks and occasionally elsewhere. The crystals from Two Islands, Nova Scotia, and Bergen Hill, N. J., studied in connection with these are white, often with a pink tinge, translucent and apparently entirely homogeneous. Some in Professor Brush's collection labeled Parsborough, Nova Scotia, are similar to those from Five Islands and may indeed have come from that locality.

* This Jour., xxv, pp. 78, 1834.

† Man. de Min., pp. 398, 1862.

‡ This Jour., xlv, pp. 362, 1867.

§ Jahrb. f. Min., pp. 633, 1836.

|| Ber. d. Oberhess. Ges. f. Natur u. Heilkunde, xvi, pp. 74, 1877; also full abstract in Zeitschr. f. Kryst., pp. 519, vol. i, 1877.

The following table shows the forms which have been observed on these crystals, several of which are new. In the first column the symbols are those of gmelinite as a distinct species, in the second the same are referred to the axes of chabazite.

| As gmelinite. | As chabazite. | As gmelinite. | As chabazite. |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| $c, O, 0001$ | $O, 0001$ | $r, R, 10\bar{1}1$ | $\frac{5}{2}, 20\bar{2}3$ |
| $m, I, 10\bar{1}0$ | $I, 10\bar{1}0$ | $\rho, -1, 01\bar{1}1$ | $-\frac{3}{2}, 02\bar{2}3$ |
| $a, i-2, 11\bar{2}0$ | $i-2, 11\bar{2}0$ | $q, \frac{2}{3}, 30\bar{3}2$ | $R, 10\bar{1}1$ |
| $l, i-\frac{2}{3}, 52\bar{7}0$ | $i-\frac{2}{3}, 52\bar{7}0$ | $\phi, \frac{1}{2}, 43\bar{7}7$ | $\frac{5}{2}, 8\ 6\ 1\bar{4}\ 21$ |

Of these forms c, a, l and q are rare, the others occur on all crystals, almost without exception, from American localities. The basal plane c occurs only on a few crystals from Two Islands and on a number of those from Bergen Hill. As noted by others, the face ρ is generally characterized by the vicinal development of a pair of low scalenohedrons. The prism m is not generally striated in a horizontal direction, as observed on European forms. The scalenohedron ϕ is invariably striated, oscillating with both the plus and minus rhombohedrons and in some cases, possibly, with a pyramid of the second order and a minus form of the same scalenohedron. Many crystals show on the goniometer, by revolving in the zone $r-\rho$, a continuous band of light with the signals of these faces standing out. The scalenohedron mentioned is, however, most prominent. The presence of this striated scalenohedron ϕ is the most characteristic feature of the American forms, it is almost never lacking on any of the large number of specimens examined. A common appearance of one corner of the Pinnacle Island crystals, where it oscillates with the rhombohedrons, is shown in fig. 3.

al were extremely good and it is not far from the average hem all. From this we derive the axial ratio:

$$a : c :: 1 : 0.734486$$

re refer gmelinite to the axial ratio of chabazite, commonly pted where $r \wedge r = 85^\circ 14'$ and

$$a : c :: 1 : 1.0860$$

prominent rhombohedron of gmelinite becomes $\frac{2}{3}$, 20 $\frac{2}{3}$ 3, this requires a length on the vertical axis of chabazite of 0 and a polar angle of $67^\circ 28'$. These Pinnacle Island stals would not permit of so great an error in the determination, if they were referable to the axis of chabazite. The ussion of this point will be referred to later. The follow-table gives the calculated and measured angles which show identification of the forms. The first column of figures es the theoretical angles calculated for this species, the nd gives the theoretical ones calculated by DesCloizeaux, the third those calculated from the axes of chabazite:

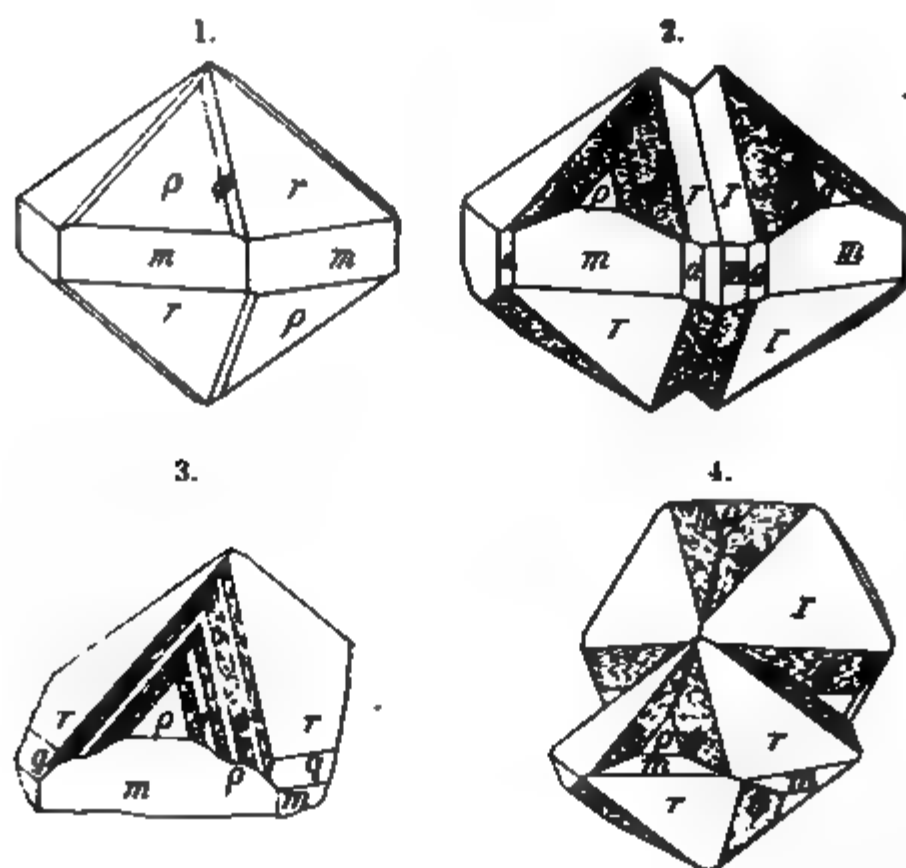
| Forms. | Calc. | Dx. | Chab. | Meas. |
|---|---------------------|---------|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| $\wedge r$ 10 $\bar{1}1 \wedge \bar{1}101$ | *68° 08' | 67° 34' | 67° 28' | See above. |
| $\wedge m$ 10 $\bar{1}1 \wedge 10\bar{1}0$ | 49 42 | *50 03 | 50 06 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 49° 40'–50° 02' av. of 8=49° 46' |
| $\wedge \rho$ 10 $\bar{1}1 \wedge 01\bar{1}1$ | 37 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 37 27 | 37 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 37 30–37 51 av. of 7=37 39 |
| $\wedge q$ 10 $\bar{1}0 \wedge 30\bar{3}2$ | 38 10 | ---- | 38 34 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 38 48 |
| $\wedge \phi$ 43 $\bar{7}7 \wedge 7\bar{3}47$ | 29 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ | ---- | 29 04 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 29 33 29 58 |
| $\wedge \phi$ 10 $\bar{1}1 \wedge 43\bar{7}7$ | 16 04 $\frac{1}{2}$ | ---- | 15 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 16 14 16 00 |
| a 10 $\bar{1}0 \wedge 11\bar{2}0$ | 30 | ---- | ---- | 29 56 |
| l 10 $\bar{1}0 \wedge 52\bar{7}0$ | 16 06 | ---- | ---- | 16 30 |

reasons stated before, none of these angles could be measured with great accuracy, yet the averages agree better with theory presented for these crystals than that given by Desaux. The angles of the scalenohedron, as given above, measured on a crystal from Two Islands where it was t almost without striations. This crystal is shown in

In all of the figures the crystals are shown revolved to the position of a minus rhombohedron, it having been hat this gave a better view of them. With the exception, all the measurements given in the foregoing are ystals from Five Islands.

ning.—The twinning of gmelinite has never to our ge been observed, beyond a brief note as to its possible an article by Howe, mentioned later. In examining of specimens I have discovered, however, numerous of a twinning on the basal plane. All that have rved were penetration twins. They are often shown owth of the scalenohedron ϕ and small ρ face, as prefig. 3, directly out from the plane of the positive iron. This method of twinning is shown in fig. 2, an

example which did not have the centers of the two individuals coincident. Further, the figure shows a common habit in the development of the forms. The second method of twinning is that in which the $\frac{1}{2}$ rhombohedron becomes the twinning plane.



This was first seen on a specimen from Parshorough, which presented a number of examples; it was afterwards observed on a number of other specimens. In all of these the twins were large sized crystals. An example of this method of twinning is shown in the following figure.



ver the twinning plane in two cases and found to be $2^{\circ} 21'$ and $2^{\circ} 55'$, while theory would demand from our gmelinite ratios $4^{\circ} 16'$ and for the chabazite $2^{\circ} 39'$. It should be stated, however, that the two ρ faces on each pair of the measured twins showed the low vicinal scalenohedron, characteristic of this face, and this of course tended to diminish the measured angles.

Indices of refraction.—Three prisms were cut from different crystals, by using the plane m for one face of the prism and grinding another in the prismatic zone. In the first one only was any well defined double refraction detected by the eye; in the other two the image of the slit was measured by holding the analyzer in front with the shorter diagonal vertical and horizontal. The three gave:

| | | | |
|---------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| ωNa | 1.4760 | 1.4646 | 1.4770 |
| ϵNa | 1.4674 | 1.4637 | 1.4765 |

There is therefore a very weak negative double refraction which varies in different crystals, the average was $\omega\text{Na} - \epsilon\text{Na}$ for the above = .0033, while Negri* found $\omega\text{Na} - \epsilon\text{Na} = .0018$ in crystals from Montecchio Maggiore.

Optical characters.—In a section cut normal to the vertical axis it is seen under the microscope, between crossed nicols, that the section is not uniformly dark, but that slight optical anomalies present themselves, somewhat as in leucite. There does not seem to be any definite separation into parts, which would show the crystal composed of several individuals. In strongly convergent light the uniaxial interference figure is seen, and at some places, in revolving, this generally opens a trifurcated cross, with the arms of the cross assuming the position of hyperbolas. This is most marked in the hard outer shell, mentioned before, where a small but distinct separation can be seen. These characters explain very clearly the variation in the indices of refraction in different crystals noted above.

Cleavage.—The prismatic cleavage, first noted by Rose, is easily produced but is never very perfect. In a basal section, under the microscope, it is seen as a series of cracks parallel to the prism edges. An endeavor, to determine whether a rhombohedral cleavage existed, or not, met with only partial success. A series of fragments, with the faces of the prism and unit rhombohedron upon them for orientation, were placed on the goniometer. Upon revolving, the prismatic cleavage always gave a reflection and in a number of cases there were reflected faint but distinct signals in the zone, from small faces, which gave measurements from the prismatic cleavage, as follows:

$19^{\circ} 42'$, $49^{\circ} 36'$, $49^{\circ} 50'$, $49^{\circ} 43'$, $49^{\circ} 55'$, $50^{\circ} 06'$, $49^{\circ} 02'$

* Zeitschr. f. Kryst., xiv, p. 584, 1888.

Our theory demands for $m \wedge r$, $10\bar{1}0 \wedge 10\bar{1}1$, of gmelinite $49^\circ 42'$. In two cases the above were measured both as positive and negative rhombohedron on the same fragment. This latter and the fact that the crystals are more or less cellular internally, renders it probable that these reflections came from minute interior faces.

Chemical composition.—In order to obtain a control over the crystallographic work on the Five Islands gmelinite, two analyses A and B have been made. In A, the outer shell mentioned before, was analyzed, and in B the inner nucleus. The material was easily obtained by taking fine crystals and splitting off the shell by pressure. The fragments thus obtained were perfectly colorless, the inner portion had the usual flesh color. Both ground to a pure white powder. The analyses on the air-dried material were as follows:

| | A | B |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| SiO ₂ | 50.35 | 50.67 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 18.33 | 18.50 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 0.26 | 0.15 |
| CaO | 1.01 | 1.05 |
| K ₂ O | 0.15 | 0.16 |
| Na ₂ O | 9.76 | 9.88 |
| H ₂ O | 20.23 | 20.15 |
| | <hr/> 100.09 | <hr/> 100.56 |

It will be observed that the analyses show no difference between the two portions. Also the specific gravity carefully taken with the heavy solution was found to be 2.037, the same for both. The most marked result of the analyses is the very small amount of lime and large amount of soda indicated.

. Analyses of American gmelinite, on material from Two Islands, Nova Scotia, and from the Hill near Cape Cod, Mass.

first a hydrated albite molecule, the second a hydrated soda bit. If, according to this, we deduce the composition indicated by the analyses of the three gmelinites, replacing soda by lime to the extent observed, we have

| | | | |
|--------------|------------|----------|--------------------|
| Two Islands | = $6x + y$ | in which | Na : Ca :: 2 : 3 |
| Bergen Hill | = $3x + y$ | “ | Na : Ca :: 3·2 : 1 |
| Five Islands | = $4x + y$ | “ | Na : Ca :: 8 : 1 |

The theoretical composition for these formulas is given, for convenience, in the table after each analysis. The very close agreement of the theory, calculated for these simple relations, with the analyses themselves is very striking and a strong confirmation of the correctness of Streng's theory. In chemical composition we may consider typical gmelinite as a soda chabazite whose relation to the normal lime chabazite is the same as that of lithiophilite to triphylite.

Conclusion.—In considering the bearing of the foregoing upon the identity of this mineral with chabazite there is a manifest discordance. The result of the crystallographic examination points to a distinct difference in axial ratios and there is a different habit and cleavage. On the other hand the crystal form and the chemical constitution, both following that of chabazite present the strongest possible arguments for the identity of the species. To explain these apparent discrepancies the following hypothesis is offered. The analyses of chabazite and gmelinite, made by various chemists, show that soda and lime may replace each other to any extent, but that in gmelinite the soda is in excess, while in chabazite the reverse is the case. If we consider then, that the effect of the soda is to lengthen somewhat the vertical axis, the difference in axial ratios would be accounted for and we might expect it to account also for the habit and cleavage. While this cannot be considered otherwise than a hypothesis, the fact that in the Five Island material under examination these differences are greater than noted by any former observer, while at the same time the percentage of soda is also greater, points decidedly towards it. According to this view gmelinite would maintain much the same relation to chabazite that enstatite does to diopside, whether it should be considered a distinct species or not will be largely a matter of choice or convenience.

In closing the author desires to express his thanks for the liberal use of valuable material to Professor G. J. Brush and Professor S. L. Penfield, to the latter also for valuable assistance during the progress of this examination.

Mineralogical Laboratory, Sheffield Scientific School,
New Haven, Feb., 1891.

*ART. IX.—Analyses of Kamacite, Tænite and Plessite from the Welland Meteoric Iron ; ** by JOHN M. DAVISON.

THE siderolite, which forms the subject of this paper, is described by Edwin E. Howell on pages 86–87 of the Proceedings of the Rochester Academy of Science for 1890. Its analysis gave Fe 91.17 and Ni 8.54. It is singularly free from troilite and schreibersite and thus offered an unusually good opportunity for the analysis of its separated nickel-iron alloys. On sawing the meteorite, the outside was found much decomposed ; but between this and the compact center was a zone in which the oxidation was superficial and confined for the most part to planes of contact of the different nickel-iron alloys that form the Widmanstätten figures. It thus became possible to separate the kamacite and the tænite in quantities sufficient for analysis. The quantity of kamacite used for analysis was gm. 0.934, of tænite gm. 0.4522.

The physical characters of these alloys differ widely. The kamacite is brittle, breaking with a subconchoidal fracture, and is of the color of cast iron. It was coated with a thin film of black oxide which had often a resinous luster as if covered with lacquer, particularly where the tænite had been freshly stripped off. This oxide is attracted by the magnet, and is probably the magnetic oxide Fe_3O_4 . Some pieces of kamacite of a millimeter or two in thickness were entirely altered to this oxide. The kamacite shows, in places, a corrugated surface, in some specimens resembling bundles of rods, like the columnar structure of hematite. Figures 1 and 2 show this columnar

of kamacite and enveloping the crystals of plessite. Figures 3 and 4 show plates of kamacite which were in close contact, and when separated were found to have been joined by a little triangular prism of the same substance.

It was, at first, intended to analyze the plessite as a whole; but on examination its fine layers were so suggestive of kamacite and t  nite that the attempt was made to separate them, and to analyze each separately. It was found that one was brittle, the other flexible and elastic; one dark with superficial oxidation, the other showing the t  nite luster. Physically their correspondence, the one with kamacite, the other with t  nite was exact, and in the kamacite-like part the columnar structure was shown on a diminutive scale, the diameter of the rods being from $\frac{1}{8}$ – $\frac{1}{3}$ mm.

Their separation then became simply a matter of patience, and with the aid of a watchmaker's glass, and a magnetized needle to pick up the grains and flakes, most of which were too small for even delicate forceps to handle, there was obtained for analysis, of the part resembling kamacite gm. 0.5261, of that resembling t  nite gm. 0.1314. The thickness of the kamacite was from 1–2 mm., that of the t  nite from $\frac{1}{15}$ – $\frac{1}{30}$ mm. In the plessite the kamacite-like bands were from $\frac{1}{30}$ – $\frac{1}{60}$ mm. thick; the t  nite-like bands, as nearly as could be measured, from $\frac{1}{150}$ – $\frac{1}{225}$ mm.

The method of analysis was the same in each case. The material was gone over repeatedly, piece by piece, with a watchmaker's glass and very carefully assorted and cleansed, the pieces of kamacite being scraped bright. It was not possible to do this to any extent with the kamacite-like part of plessite. It was dissolved in dilute hydrochloric acid by the aid of a weak galvanic current, at the positive pole of the battery. The carbon thus separated was collected on a Gooch filter and burned. The nickel and cobalt were separated from the iron by digestion in ammonium hydrate, the process being repeated four times. The iron was weighed, and the nickel and cobalt first determined together by electrolysis, then separated by potassium nitrite and each determined separately in the same manner. For comparison, the analyses of kamacite and t  nite are given each next to its corresponding part of the plessite.

| Kamacite. | | Plessite. | | T  nite. |
|-----------|-------|---------------------|--------------------|----------|
| | | Kamacite-like part. | T  nite-like part. | |
| Fe | 93.09 | 92.81 | 72.98 | 74.78 |
| Ni | 6.69 | 6.97 | 25.87 | 24.32 |
| Co | .25 | .19 | .83 | .33 |
| C | .02 | .19 | .91 | .50 |
| <hr/> | | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> |
| 100.05 | | 100.16 | 100.59 | 99.93 |

These physical and chemical correspondences justify, I think, the conclusion that in the Welland siderite there are but two distinct nickel-iron alloys, viz: kamacite and taenite: and that the so-called plessite is merely thin alternating lamellæ of kamacite and taenite.

It is unsafe to generalize on a single analysis, but an examination of the markings of other meteoric irons suggests the thought that in them also there may be but two distinct alloys. Such are the Deserobrion, the Gorieta M., and notably the Kôwa Co. and the Augusta Co., Va. meteorites. In sections of the last two irons in Ward & Howell's collection every piece of the so-called plessite in the Augusta Co. iron shows its thin lamellæ, and in the Kôwa Co. plessite the gradations of the markings are such that in parts of the iron it would be difficult to say which should be called kamacite and which plessite.

In etching meteoric iron, the kamacite is attacked by acid more readily than the taenite richer in nickel. The taenite and plessite stand in relief. Where lamellæ do not show in plessite may it be easy or wold taenite bands have protected neighboring kamacite layers from acid action, and might not more careful or prolonged etching develop lines in plessite that now appear homogeneous?

LEONARD L. CHAMBERLAIN
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, APRIL 1891.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

I. CHEMISTRY AND PHYSICS.

ated by the current of certain voltaic cells, as compared with the amount generated by the chemical action going on in the cells; in order to determine the exact relation of these two quantities. The heat developed by the current was ascertained by means of a silver voltameter placed together with the cell, in a calorimeter. The heat evolved by the chemical action was determined by direct calorimetric means. The cells examined were of the Daniell and the De la Rue forms, three experiments being made with each. As a result the author finds that with the Daniell cell, the heat equivalent of the current is greater than that generated chemically; so that in the working of this cell, heat is absorbed. On the other hand the De la Rue cell shows a reverse effect, not all the heat proper to the chemical action going on appearing in the circuit. But in this case the author observed that the relative amount of electrical energy increases with the concentration of the solution in the cell. These results confirm substantially those of Jahn.—*Ann. Phys. Chem.*, II, xlvii, 103; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 513, May, 1891. G. F. B.

3. *On the Action of Heat on Carbon Monoxide.*—BERTHELOT has observed that when carbon monoxide is heated in a glass tube to 500° or 550° , a minute quantity—three or four thousandths—of carbon dioxide is produced; and this without any simultaneous separation of carbon. If, however, the carbon monoxide be passed through a porcelain tube, and the temperature of this be raised to a dull or even a bright red heat, while approximately the same quantity of carbon dioxide is observed to be produced as before, there is at the same time a distinct separation of carbon. Hence the author concludes that in this experiment carbon monoxide is not simply dissociated, but is at the same time polymerized; and that the product of this polymerization decomposes into carbon dioxide and carbon sub-oxide according to the equation $C_nO_n = C_{n-1}O_{n-1} + CO_2$; which sub-oxide at a higher temperature yields carbon monoxide and free carbon.—*C. R.*, cxii, 594 *Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, (Ref.) 348, May, 1891. G. F. B.

4. *On the Electro-metallurgy of Aluminum.*—MINET has contributed further details concerning the reduction of aluminum by electrolytic methods. The steel crucible is now made smaller and is provided with an internal lining of carbon which serves as the negative electrode. The difference of potential between the two electrodes is 4.55 volts and the yield is 31.9 grams of aluminum per horse power per hour, or 31.3 horse powers per hour for one kilogram of aluminum. The author believes that it will be possible to reduce the difference of potential to 4 volts and under these conditions there will be no electrolysis of the sodium chloride and the yield will reach 70 per cent of the theoretical quantity. The loss of 30 per cent is due to the action of the fused fluorides on the aluminum and does not occur when aluminum alloys are made, since in this case the electrolytic cell is composed of the other metal and the liberated aluminum at once combines with it.—*C. R.*, cxii, 231; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 525, May, 1891.

G. F. B.

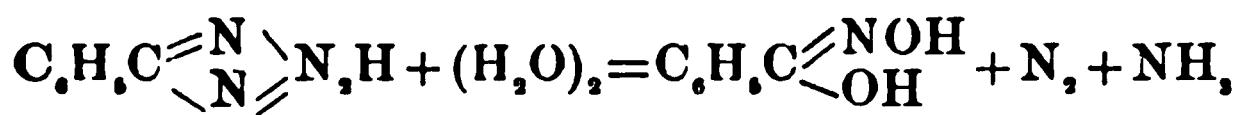
5. *On the Detection of metallic Mercury in cases of Poisoning.*

—It is generally assumed that metallic mercury when treated with hydrochloric acid and potassium chlorate goes readily into solution. But LECCO has observed that in destroying the organic matter in toxicological cases with these reagents, metallic mercury if present is only very slowly attacked. A human stomach in which minute globules of mercury could be distinctly seen was treated in this way until the organic matter was destroyed and then examined as usual. Scarcely a trace of mercury could be detected in the solution, while in the residue minute globules of the metal were visible. Direct experiment showed that mercury itself is soluble with extreme difficulty under these conditions; and hence the author believes that in examination for poisons this fact should be borne in mind. He recommends that the process of treating with hydrochloric acid and potassium chlorate should be continued for some time after the organic matter disappears.—*Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, 928, April, 1891. G. F. K.

6. *On Tetrazotic acid and its Oxy- and Di-oxy derivatives.*—

In consequence of the observation that by the action of acids upon benzenyl-amidine nitrite, an acid is produced having the formula $C_6H_5.N_4O$, and therefore of the composition of a di-nitroso-benzenyl-amidine, W. LOSSEN undertook further researches in this direction and has obtained some noteworthy results. He finds (1) that similar compound acids are yielded by other amidines provided that in them the hydrogen in the group $C \begin{smallmatrix} \nearrow NH \\ \searrow NH \end{smallmatrix}$ is not replaced by alkyl radicals; (2) that the acids thus obtained $X.N_4O_2H$, called dioxy-tetrazotic acids and of which the above benzenyl-dioxytetrazotic acid $C_6H_5.N_4O_2H$ is an example, are reduced by sodium amalgam to oxy-tetrazotic acids, $X.N_4OH$, such as benzenyl-oxytetrazotic acid $C_6H_5.N_4OH$, and to tetrazotic acids $X.N_4H$, as for example $C_6H_5.N_4H$ benzenyl-tetra-

though possibly an intermediate stage occurs as follows:



the benzhydroxamic acid splitting into aniline and carbon dioxide; benzenyl-tetrazotic acid may be considered either as a phenyl-

tetrazol $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C} \begin{array}{l} \text{=N} \text{---} \text{N} \\ \text{N} \text{=}/ \text{NH} \text{---} \text{N} \end{array}$, analogous to the isomeric compound

discovered by Bladin $\text{CH} \begin{array}{l} \text{=N} \text{---} \text{N} \\ \text{N} \text{=}/ \text{N}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5) \text{---} \text{N} \end{array}$, or as an imido compound

corresponding to the benzoyl-azoimide of Curtius $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CO} \cdot \text{N} \begin{array}{l} \text{=N} \\ \text{N} \text{=}/ \end{array}$,

in the latter case having the formula $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}(\text{NH}) \cdot \text{N} \begin{array}{l} \text{=N} \\ \text{N} \text{=}/ \end{array}$; (c) since

benzenyl-oxytetrazotic acid does not give Liebermann's reaction, it is not a nitro-compound. According to C. Lossen, benzenyl-oxytetrazotic acid crystallizes from boiling water in rhombic needles which fuse with decomposition at 175° . With one molecule of crystal water the acid is permanent, but when deprived of this water at 105° , it readily decomposes evolving nitrous vapors. Its salts with potassium, barium and silver are described. Benzenyl-tetrazotic acid crystallizes from hot water, better from alcohol in rhombic hemimorphic colorless needles, fusing at 212° to 213° with decomposition. By slowly heating it, a beautiful red mass is obtained; while on rapid heating a violent decomposition results, often with ignition, a dark green tenacious residue being left in the test-tube, whose vapor is red or violet. The dioxytetrazotic acid affords a meta-nitro-derivative m-nitrobenzenyl-dioxytetrazotic acid.—*Liebig's Annalen*, cclxiii, 73; *Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, 392, May, 1891. G. F. B.

7. *Polar light and Cosmic dust*.—LIVING and DEWAR obtained metallic dust by means of electrical discharges between terminals of different metals inserted in a glass receptacle—from this the dust was conveyed by means of a stream of hydrogen into an end-on-tube, through which electrical discharges were passed. The spectrum of these discharges showed no trace of the lines of the finely divided metals although the finely divided dust was present in great abundance. They therefore conclude that if the northern lights are due to great electric discharges through rarified air filled with cosmic dust, conditions must exist which are different from those in the experiment devised by them.—*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, xlviii, p. 437–440, 1891.

J. T.

8. *Phosphorescence*.—E. WIEDERMANN has investigated the character of the light given out by Balmain's paint under different conditions of exposure. He expresses his belief that a source of light which sends forth proportionally more light waves than heat waves, as Langley maintains is the case with the fire fly, is not

necessarily the cheapest source of light. In order to estimate the cheapness of a light account must be taken of the entire transformation of the energy of the light in the process of vision."—*Beiblätter zu den Annalen der Physik*, No. 4, 1891, p. 281. J. T.

9. *Reflection and Refraction of light by thin surface layers.*—P. DRUDE examines mathematically the conditions which must hold for the reflection and refraction of light by thin layers of metals such as Professor Kundt has experimented with in obtaining indices of refraction of metals. The paper is long and exhaustive; but is not supported by experimental results. The author hopes to obtain suitable surfaces to verify his theoretical conclusions. These are as follows:

(1.) In the expression for the absolute amplitude, ratios and difference of phase of the reflected and the transmitted light—three constants depending upon the nature of the layer enter. In Cauchy's formula but one constant depending upon the boundary enters.

(2.) For refraction and ordinary reflection the formulas are identical with those of Cauchy.

(3.) A lower limit for the thickness of the layer transmitting light is given by elliptical polarization.

(4.) No ellipticity is shown if the layer is contained between the media of the same index of refraction. If the plate is wedge-shaped of small angle; in reflected light the bright bands have the normal polarization angle. The dark bands deviate from this, and a conclusion can thus be drawn in regard to the index of refraction of the layer in case the layer is homogeneous.

(5.) In the dark band the reflected light is linear polarized—the transmitted light elliptically polarized. In the bright bands the reflected as well as the transmitted light is elliptically polarized.

(6.) From observation upon the light transmitted by thin



ted sandstone, have afforded Dr. C. E. Beecher Lower Cambrian fossils; and that in one case the sandstone contained, near the mineral graphite. The main purpose of the article is to set the evidence obtained by the author in favor of the conclusion that the white crystalline limestone of the county, containing chondrodite and other minerals, which has been supposed to be chætan, is really of the age of the blue limestone. The evidence then is, briefly, the occurrence of graphite in both the white and the limestones; the passage of one into the other at some localities; and the inference that the white limestone owes its crystallization to contact with eruptive rocks, (granite, etc.), and exhibits various contact phenomena. The Franklinite iron ore of the county is associated with the white limestone, and is therefore of the same age. The conclusion is a wide-reaching one, and the facts should have full investigation before being adopted. The evidence drawn from the graphite is of uncertain value as the mineral occurs in rocks of much later time. Dr. Cook regarded the iron ore beds and the limestones as part of the gneissic formation of the region, the gneiss being not in view foliated granite; and the writer's examinations of the rocks associated with these ores have led him to the same conclusion. Moreover, it is an impossibility that the crystallization of the white limestone formation should have been produced by contact with the dikes of igneous rocks, or even with protruded granite; for the rock of a dike cools outside too rapidly for such result. The trap dikes of New Jersey illustrate this point abundantly. Melted granite injected through a cold rock would not be true crystalline granite against the walls or make the limestone adjoining coarsely crystalline, like the white limestone, even for a hundred feet. Again dikes of a hornblendic scapolite rock are described. But it is impossible that melted scapolite injected into cold rocks in fissures four to six feet wide or wider than this, should become on cooling crystallized scapolite, even in a granular form, alike from wall to wall, with "perfect foliation" parallel to the walls, so that it has been mistaken for gneiss. For such crystallization the enclosing limestone should be hot enough for its own crystallization—the condition attending metamorphism.

The actual passage of the blue limestone into the white has no right, if the observation is beyond question. The writer doubts the conclusion as to actual passage because he has observed in East Lee, Massachusetts, an apparent passage of the boundary between the Stockbridge limestone and another which is chondroditic, and saved himself from inferring their identity by finding the latter associated in a part of the area with a very different class of crystalline schists. In other cases over eastern Berkshire chondroditic limestone was met with; and in each it was associated with rocks that were in part so unlike the schists of the Stockbridge limestone or Taconic belt, viewing them through its whole course, from Vermont, Massachusetts, and

Connecticut to New York island, that it was accepted as evidence of Archæan age. Superposition of the later limestone on the earlier and subsequent changes may account for the cases of apparent passage. Limestone belts have determined the positions of the chief valleys of Berkshire; and in some cases Archæan limestone was first in the work.

One of the most comprehensive facts in the geology of Eastern America is the general identity of strike and dip, in associated metamorphic or crystalline rocks of Archæan and later time. In eastern Berkshire the writer failed to detect the limit between the Taconic schists and the Archæan, after several trials; and the same was true for the ridge southwest of Cornwall, Conn., where chondroditic limestone occurs; and also in Putnam County, N. Y., where there are Archæan iron ores. In each case the quartzite of the Taconic series was followed by gneiss of like dip and this by other gneisses, and the Archæan limit was not discovered. The question was left for a later and more thorough investigation, which has not been made. It is now in other hands, with a promise of success. Taking the evidence which strike and dip afford as of itself conclusive, it is probable that nearly all the so-called Archæan rocks of the Appalachian Proterozoic could be proved to be Paleozoic. The problem which Mr. Nason has investigated in Northern New Jersey is one of great importance and difficulty. It is a part of a wider problem—that embracing all the Archæan schists and ore-beds of New Jersey.

J. D. D.

2. *Two belts of fossiliferous black shale in the Triassic formation of Connecticut*, by W. M. DAVIS and S. WARD LOPER. 16 pp. 8vo. (Bull. Geol. Soc. America, vol. ii, April, 1891.)—Professor Davis commences his paper with a summary of his conclusions respecting the Triassic formation in the vicinity of Meriden, Conn., and its associated trap. His list of papers

tion. The east-and-west ridge called Mt. Carmel, situated about half way between New Haven and the Meriden trap ridges is a 'great mass of dikes,' which "may be regarded as the locus of the volcanic pipes up through which rose the lavas now seen in the extrusive and intrusive sheets." The existence of these volcanoes is spoken of as without direct evidence, but probable. In the two figures of the paper these volcanoes are represented as buried in the sandstone formation and are entitled "the Group of buried volcanoes," "The lost volcanoes." The tilting of the sandstone with the intercalated sheet of trap, giving the formation its eastward dip throughout the region, probably followed the time of deposition and eruption. Even the intrusive dike, West Rock, is probably "of earlier date than the tilting and faulting of the formation, and hence of roughly synchronous date with the overflows." The faulting of the sandstone accompanying the uplifts was probably guided in direction by the planes of foliation in the underlying schists.

The two belts of black shale contain fossil fishes and plants. One of them is that of the well-known Durham locality and others of the same belt. The second occurs in a small brook north of the village of Westfield, Conn., and has been opened also at four other places along a line of about fifty miles. The latter, Mr. Loper states, has afforded one species of fish, *Ischypterus gigas*, not found in the Durham line, and two species of plants also absent from it, *Equisetum Rogersi* Sch., and *Ctenophyllum Braunianum* Sch.

3. *Illustrations of the Fauna of the St. John Group*, No. V.; by G. F. MATTHEW.—Mr. G. F. Matthew's paper under the above title, though read before the Royal Society of Canada in May, 1890, has only recently been distributed. The author has made a study of the fauna of the lower rocks of New Brunswick, especially near the city of St. John, and has given the results of his labors in numerous papers of interest. In the present one after discussing the structure of the St. John Basin, and various sections of the strata, he describes several new species of fossils and presents remarks upon some old ones, especially upon trilobites. This section is followed by a third treating mainly of tracks and markings, and upon this we offer some remarks and criticisms.

He gives, in the first place, a short sketch of Nathorst's observations upon Medusæ, quoting the descriptions of *Medusites princeps* Torell (sp.) (= *M. favosa* of Nathorst), *M. radiata* Linns., (sp.) and *M. costata* Torell (sp.) (= *M. Lindstromi* of Nathorst). All these forms were described from beds of Cambrian age in Sweden, and Mr. Matthew says that in the St. John group indications are found of some of these "medusa-like forms as Nathorst considers them." He then proceeds to describe a new genus *Medusichnites*, founded for the reception of certain trails or tracks "which appear to have been produced by such creatures." Not that there is any indication they were positively made by *Medusæ*, "but rather that they are probably due to

those Radiate animals which Nathorst has referred to *Medusites*." The name *Taonichnites* had been previously suggested by him for some similar form, but he now advocates discarding the old name and substituting a new one. Why the new forms should not have been included with the old one we are unable to understand. Fortunately no specific names are given to the series of markings referred to this genus. The author prefers, instead, to designate them as "forms," and of these he describes and illustrates five.

In these descriptions we no longer find any doubt expressed as to the manner in which the tracks were made or the kind of animals which made them. One is "the imprint of tentacles resting on the bottom." Another, from the Animikie group of the Lake Superior region, and the original of *Taonichnites*, he says "is a good illustration of certain impressions which have been mistaken for rill markings, but which are really of organic origin. It has been made by a Medusite swept along by a current above the surface of a bed of very fine sandy mud." It is interesting to know that the same genus ranged from the Animikie into the Middle Cambrian.

Another new genus proposed is *Eoichnites*, the name being a substitute for *Eophyton*. Mr. Matthew gives an account of *Eophyton* and of its supposed nature by the original discoverer, Torell, and figures what he calls *Eoichnites Linnæanus* Torell (sp.), from the St. John group. These figures, while they bear little resemblance to the typical *Eophyton Linnæanum*, are very much like some of the figures of *Medusichnites*, and should be placed there if that genus be a good one.

A third new genus established is *Ctenichnites*, adopted for markings which Mr. Matthew says Torell and Linnarsson confounded with *Eophyton*. We are told the markings resemble *Eoichnites* so far "that they might easily be supposed to have been produced by larger individuals of the kind which made the

A comparison of the figures of *Ctenichnites ingens* with those of *Eoichnites* and some forms of *Medusichnites* induces the opinion that they are not to be separated even specifically. Some of the first have the lines wider apart than those of the second, and are less curved than the third, but the variability in all is so great that to draw a line anywhere between them is a task that few would dare undertake.

Under *Psammichnites* he refers to certain specimens found in St. John which seem to him probably "may have been made by by a *Psammichnites*." From this it would appear that Mr. Matthew considers *Psammichnites* to be an animal form of some sort. The general opinion is (Hancock, Haughton, Torell and Nathorst) that the forms described under that name are only tracks.

Under *Fræna* a new species, *F. ramosa*, is described, and under *Arenicolites* also, a new form, *A. brevis*, is given. Still a fourth genus, *Goniadnichnites*, with one species, *G. trichiformis*, is created, and on very slender grounds. Small, slender and thread-like, the name is given because of their resemblance to tracks made by recent *Goniada*. The figure bears some resemblance to certain branching forms of graptolites like *Dendrograptus tenuiramosus*, from the Utica Slate of New York.

Last of all the new species is an addition to Torrell's *Monocraterion*, under the name of *M. magnificum*. From the plate it is well named, for from a central cavity two inches in its longer diameter, and one and a quarter inches in its shorter, spread out filaments, called "tentacles," three inches in length: and this figure is reduced one-third. If this burrow were made by a worm, it must have been a gigantic creature.

In studying this paper of Mr. Matthew's we cannot but regret that he has made his many new genera and species upon such scanty material. As objects illustrating some phase of sedimentation, or the possibility of some sort of life having existed, these markings are of interest. But it is a useless burden upon science to give to them generic and specific names.

JOSEPH F. JAMES.

Washington, D. C., June 13, 1891.

4. *Études des gîtes minéraux de la France. Bassin Houiller et Permien d'Autun et d'Épinac. Fasc. II, Flore fossile, Première partie*, par R. ZEILLER. Pp. 1-304. Atlas, xxvii plates, 4°.—This fascicle begins the third of a series of valuable recent works on the flora of the Carboniferous epoch in France. Of these three, the first, on the flora of the Valenciennes basin, by M. R. Zeiller, dated 1888, is the most important work in French on the Paleozoic flora since the "Histoire" of Brongniart, with which it will take a place as a classic in paleobotanical literature. The first part of the second work, on the Commeny flora, in which the ferns are monographed by Zeiller, bears the same date; but the second part, under the joint authorship of MM. B. Renault and Zeiller was not finished until 1890. The present

work includes the flora of the Épinac and Molloy stages of the Upper Carboniferous and the Igornay-Lally, Cornaille-Chambois, and Millery stages of the Lower Permian. The Millery horizon, in the Autun basin, is celebrated as the source of the wonderfully preserved silicified plants that formed the basis of the many important works on the organization and fructification of the plants of the Paleozoic by Brongniart, Grand'Eury, Renault, Bertrand, and Zeiller. In this fascicle Zeiller treats the ferns, prefacing their description with an illustrated résumé of the classification of the types represented in this flora according to their discovered fruiting forms. Considerable new and interesting material is here brought to light. About forty species, many of them new, are described from foliar and fruiting characters. The last 120 pages contain descriptions and illustrations of the trunks and petioles of the ferns, belonging to *Ptychopteris*, including *Caulopteris gigantea*, F. & W., to *Psaronius*, representing trunks of *Pecopteris* and *Scolecopteris*, and comprising an extinct tribe of the *Marattiaceæ*, and to *Myeloxylon*, including *Medullosa* (pars), *Myelopteris* and *Stenzelia*, which he regards as petioles and rachises of *Alethopteris*. *Odontopteris* and *Neuropteris*, representing a group, with pithed petioles and a centrifugally developed secondary woody zone, perhaps intermediate between the *Ophioglossaceæ* and the *Marattiaceæ*. The flora is interesting as showing many transition forms between the Upper Carboniferous and the Permian types. The second part of the work, dealing with the remaining groups, is in preparation by M. B. Renault.

D. W.

5. *The Genus Sphenophyllum*, by J. S. NEWBERRY. Journ. Cincinnati Soc. Nat. Hist., vol. xiii, 1891, pp. 212-217, pl. xix. —In this short paper Dr. Newberry reiterates the view proposed first by himself in 1853, and afterwards independently by Coe and Hooker, that in certain species of *Sphenophyllum*

geological and paleontological papers, memoirs, maps, etc., of the year, arranged according to subjects and countries; and after a catalogue of the authors in the lists, the following 1000 pages of the volume contain quite full abstracts of very many of these publications. Not only the names of new species are given in the Paleontological part, but, to a large extent, descriptions of genera, and among the Vertebrata of many of the species, besides a review of new deductions and opinions. The Annual is essential to the geologist who would know about the yearly progress of the science over the world, and keep himself informed of discoveries bearing on his own work.

7. *Tables for the Determination of Minerals* by physical properties ascertainable with the aid of a few field instruments, based on the system of Professor Dr. Albin Weisbach by PERSIFOR FRAZER. Third edition, entirely re-written, 113 pp. Philadelphia, 1891 (J. B. Lippincott Company).—Professor Frazer's tables have already been found of much practical value by many workers, and in their present revised and improved form, their sphere of usefulness should be widely extended.

8. *Materialien zur Mineralogie Russlands*, von N. v. KOKSCHAROW. Vol. x, pp. 225–351. St. Petersburg, 1891.—The part now issued forms the conclusion of volume x. It includes descriptions of jeremejewite, eichwaldite, columbite, also supplementary notes on enclase, zircon, topaz and other species.

III. MISCELLANEOUS SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

1. *Volcano of Kilauea*.—In a letter of May 9th, Rev. E. P. Baker reports that after the eruption of March 6 the lava first appeared in the bottom of the empty basin of Halemaumau on the 10th of April. He visited the crater on the 29th of April and found the lake of liquid lava within it 100 or 200 feet across, and a blowing cone by the side of it which was throwing up globules of lava. The lake had a thin scum-like crust over it. While looking at the lake from the edge of the basin, 300 feet perhaps above the lake, the lava began to run off through an orifice beside the cone until the basin was nearly empty. The next day the lava had wholly disappeared. Again on the 6th of May Mr. Baker was down in the crater and found no liquid lava in the basin; but from the cooled lava on its sides it appeared that the lava had in the interval risen to a higher level than on April 30th. It thus seemed that the lake was rising and falling—rising through the accession of new lavas from below, and falling through discharges. The cone continued to throw up occasionally globules of lava.

2. *American Geological Society*.—The summer meeting of the society is to be held Monday and Tuesday, August 24 and 25, in the Columbian University, Washington, D. C., and will doubtless be one of unusual interest. The meeting will be preceded August 19–22, by the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and will be followed by the International

Geological Congress, which meets August 26, and remains in session one week. The three societies will meet in the same building. The foreign members of the International Geological Congress are to be invited to read papers before the Geological Society, and their papers will be given precedence on the program. A number of excursions will probably be arranged. The local arrangements are in the hands of a committee, Mr. G. K. Gilbert, chairman.


3. *International Congress of Geologists—5th Session, Washington, 1891.*—Circular of information, No. 11, has been recently issued by the Secretaries, H. S. Williams and S. F. Emmons, giving full information in regard to time and place of meeting (see above), program, transportation, excursions and hotel accommodations. Correspondence should be addressed to S. F. Emmons, 1330 F street, Washington.

4. *Physical Observatory at the Smithsonian Institution, Washington.*—Prof. S. P. Langley announces (in a letter to the Editors, dated June 1, 1891) that there has been established at Washington, as a department of the Smithsonian Institution, a Physical Observatory, which has been furnished with specially designed apparatus for the prosecution of investigations in radiant energy and other departments of telluric and astrophysics. The communication of new memoirs bearing in any way on such researches is requested, and for them it is hoped that proper return can be made in due time.

Prof. Langley also states that he has resigned the titular directorship of Allegheny Observatory.

OBITUARY.

CHARLES ARAD JOY, for many years Professor of Chemistry in Columbia College, died May 29 at Stockbridge, Mass. He was born in Lanesville, Tolland County, Conn., Oct. 8, 1823.



THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

[THIRD SERIES.]

ART. X. — *Some of the features of non-volcanic Igneous Ejections, as illustrated in the four "Rocks" of the New Haven Region, West Rock, Pine Rock, Mill Rock and East Rock*; by JAMES D. DANA. With Plates II to VII.

THE observations on the igneous ejections of the New Haven region here recorded and discussed were mostly completed during the years 1879 and 1880, shortly after the publication (in 1877) of a detailed topographical map of the region by the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, made under the special direction of R. M. Bache. As this map is on the large scale of $\frac{1}{10000}$, or about $6\frac{1}{8}$ inches to the mile, and has 20-foot contour lines, it afforded a very convenient basis for the record of geological facts.

A reduction of a portion of this map to a scale of two miles to the inch, is presented on Plate II.* Excepting the hills in the southwestern corner of the map, its whole area, even that of the New Haven plain, is underlaid by the Jura-Trias Red-sandstone formation. (The excepted hills are part of the border of metamorphic schists that bounds the Jura-Trias region

* This map is a portion of Plate II in the writer's paper on the "Phenomena of the Glacial and Champlain Periods about the mouth of the Connecticut Valley, or the New Haven Region" (This Journal, xxvii, 113, Feb. 1884). The limit of the New Haven plain is marked by a dotted line at the base of the hills, and the contour-lines over it are omitted, the heights instead being given after a special survey. The small nearly circular depressions marked on the map represent "Kettle-holes." The New Haven plain was of river-flood origin and it is presented on the map with the outlines and height unaltered by the gradings for road-making, and by the making of mill-dams; and hence the map is a map of the region of New Haven before 1640, as stated in its title.

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on the west.) The map shows the positions of the four trap ridges—more strictly trap-and-sandstone ridges—West Rock, Pine Rock, Mill Rock and East Rock, and gives their heights above mean tide. These rampart-like elevations are now two to three miles from New Haven Bay; but they bear evidence of having been for a time the headlands of a much larger bay.

The ridges are part of the Jura-Trias Mountain-range of the Connecticut Valley. (1) East Rock and West Rock are like the other north-and-south ridges of the range in their form, structure and direction, and West Rock ridge after a course of seventeen miles, dies out just where the higher trap ridges of the Mt. Tom line commence, showing an interlocking with the rest of the system. (2) They consist of Jura-Trias sandstone with an intercalated sheet of trap (as the igneous rock is popularly called). (3) The sheet of trap in the ridges has a rising inclination westward, or a dip eastward, like the associated beds of sandstone, the liquid rock having been extruded from a fissure or fissures situated somewhere to the eastward. (4) As a consequence of these common features, denudation by water and ice has given to the New Haven ridges the features typical of the range,* namely, a steep western front, consisting of sandstone below and the harder trap above, a top of bare trap, and eastern slopes of sandstone, that is of the overlying sandstone.

From such common features the inference as to a common method of origin is natural. Still, as Professor Davis claims, it needs also other support for acceptance.

We note also (4) that these Rocks are situated at the southern extremity of the Jura-Trias Mountain-range: for the Connecticut Valley and its Jura-Trias beds do not extend over

and coarse conglomerate, even cobble-stone-gravel conglomerate. When fine-grained and shaly it is not a firm laminated rock, but divides or crumbles readily to thin chips. The more massive kinds are usually traversed with fractures; and none has much firmness except where consolidated by heat from the trap-ejections, or the hot vapors produced thereby. Consequently, fissures made though the formation should have great irregularities, from irregular fracturing and the tumbling into them of masses of sandstone and large sections of their walls.

(2) The thickness of the sandstone intersected by the fissures over the center of the New Haven region was at least 3000 feet, as proved by borings at a point half way between the bay and the west end of Mill Rock. Along the West Rock line the depth was probably less, as this ridge is within a mile and a half of the western metamorphic limit of the Connecticut Valley of Triassic time. Beneath the sandstone the fissures came up through underlying crystalline rocks, in which they would probably have great regularity in course, width and continuity.

(3) When the heat from the trap, or the hot vapors generated by it, consolidated the sandstone, it generally made hard, durable rock of the coarser kind, but left the finer beds, alternating with the coarse, fragile and chip-making; and this was so, apparently, because hot vapor penetrates most easily the coarser beds for the cementing work. The heat, through the penetrating vapors, generally discharged more or less completely the color of the beds it consolidated, producing an ash-gray and brownish shade; made in them steam tubes with blanched walls; produced blotches of impure chlorite, or epidote, and crystallizations of hematite and epidote, and less commonly garnet. But the finer beds that alternate with the coarse commonly retain, except perhaps for a few inches, their red color, and even have it deepened to a dark purplish red—as if by the reduction of some of the red coloring matter (oxide of iron) to magnetite. Moreover, the sandstone often loses all the old bedding. These varying effects from the heat have added much to the original irregularities of the beds.

(1) Of the four Rocks, East and West belong to the prevailing north-and-south system, as already stated; the other two, Pine Rock and Mill Rock, to a transverse system.

(2) In East Rock and West Rock the sheet of trap made by outflow from the opened fissure or fissures has a length westward of 100 to 500 yards.

(3) The supply fissure, or its filling, the dike, descends beneath the eastern slope with a large eastward pitch: the angle of pitch in the case of East Rock being about 50° .

(4) In Pine Rock and Mill Rock, the trap is in *tabulae*, there being no evidence of any outflow. Yet these dikes are some of the outlets the great breadth of 150 to 300 or more feet.

(5) The pitch of these dikes is to the northward: and an angle 15° to 40° —both characters of unusual interest.

(6) Although neither East Rock, Mill Rock nor Pine Rock has a length exceeding a mile and a half, each has three or four distinct outlets of trap, separated by intervening sandstone. Moreover, there is wide diversity between the Rocks in the form and arrangement of these areas of extruded trap, as the map illustrates.

(7) The trap of the several ridges, according to examination by E. S. Dana, is true dolerite, free, or nearly so, from silica and other evidences of interior alteration, and not at all vesicular.

(8) Columnar fractures give the rock a rudely columnar structure, in which the half-defined columns are four to eight feet in diameter. In the west fronts of the north and south ridges the rude columns have usually an inclination nearly at right angles to the mean dip of the associated sandstone—accord- ing thus with the usual rule: perpendicular to the cooling sur- face. But among the columnar fractures, whatever the incli- nation of the columns, that plane of fracture or joint which is transverse to the sides of the dike or trap-mass and nearly ver- tical is the most strongly developed, and consequently the trap often cleaves into nearly vertical plates or laminae of great extent, much like a laminated rock. There usually is also a second easy cleavage-direction, nearly at right angles to the former so that rectangular columns sometimes come out



or chambers for its occupation, the liquid rock thus the overlying sandstone as long as the discharge was used. By such means the sheets of liquid trap attained, in some cases, a thickness of 300 or more feet. This forcible rising and filling of a chamber in the sandstone by the up-lavas, is a *laccolithic* process, it according with that of the laccoliths ably studied out and described by Gilbert.*

The intrusion of the flowing rock between the sandstone took place at comparatively shallow depths, where the pressure of the rock was not too great to prevent it.

It was favored, in each case, by the fact that the fissure supplying the lava was inclined in the same direction with the layers of the uplifted sandstone—both inclining westward, the dip being eastward.

The termination of a fissure in several outlets, exemplified in three of the Rocks, was largely due to the great inclination and depth of the fissures opened through the weakened and faulted sandstone, and thence to great downfalls on the hanging wall. The same cause led to irregularities in the width and forms of dikes, and influenced the outlines and features of outflows.

The course and dip of supply-fissures was not determined by the foliation or bedding of the schists underneath the sandstone.

ESPECIAL FACTS FROM THE SEVERAL ROCKS ILLUSTRATING THE ABOVE CONCLUSIONS.

The ridges, Pine Rock and Mill Rock, containing simple fissures are first considered, and then East Rock and West Rock, which include dikes and outflows from them.†

1. PINE ROCK.

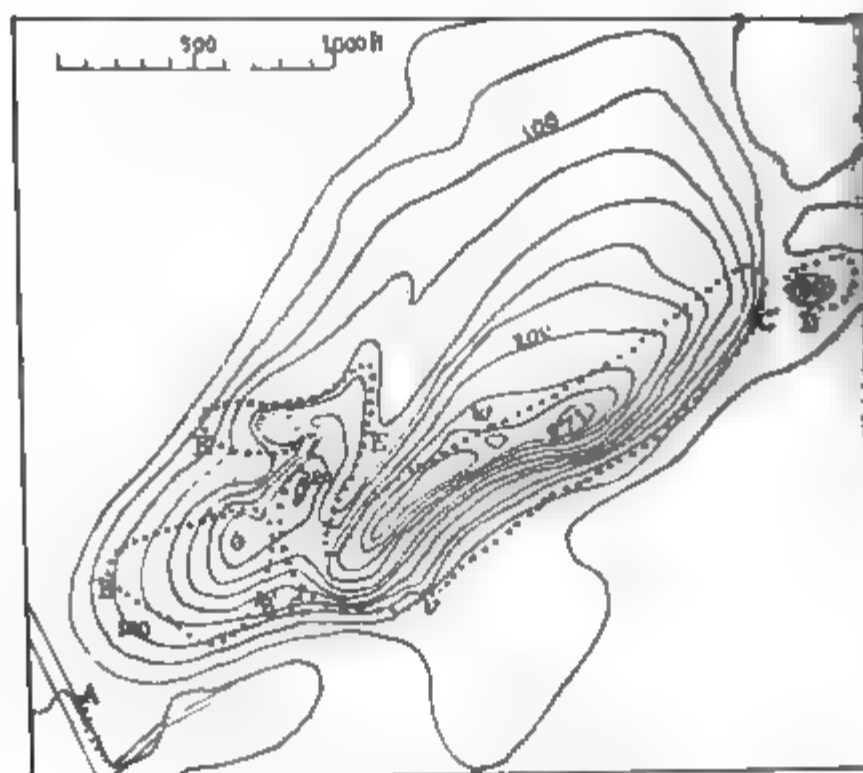
The general form of Pine Rock is shown on Plate II, and better on the following larger map.‡ It is only three-quarters of a mile long and trends N. 67° E., or east-northeast. This small ridge has three, perhaps four, independent outlets, labeled A, BB', CC' and D. The first, at the west end, is a dike 15 to 20 feet wide, trending north 20° west, and continuing for 220 feet. It dips eastward 25°, and thus proves

the geology of the Henry Mountains by G. K. Gilbert, 4to, 1877.

In justice to Percival, the author of the Report on the Geology of Connecticut, 1842, it should be here stated that there is scarcely an outlet or area of fissure mentioned beyond which is not recorded on his map or described in his

contour lines on this map, and also those on that of Mill Rock on page 83, copied from the Bache Coast Survey map.

that it is not an outlier of West Rock, but part of the Pine Rock group. The other three are, more evidently, outlets from one great fissure. The width of the larger mass, CC', is about 800 feet; and it is therefore one of the widest of dikes. The dip of the dike is 50° to 55° northwestward. This inclines

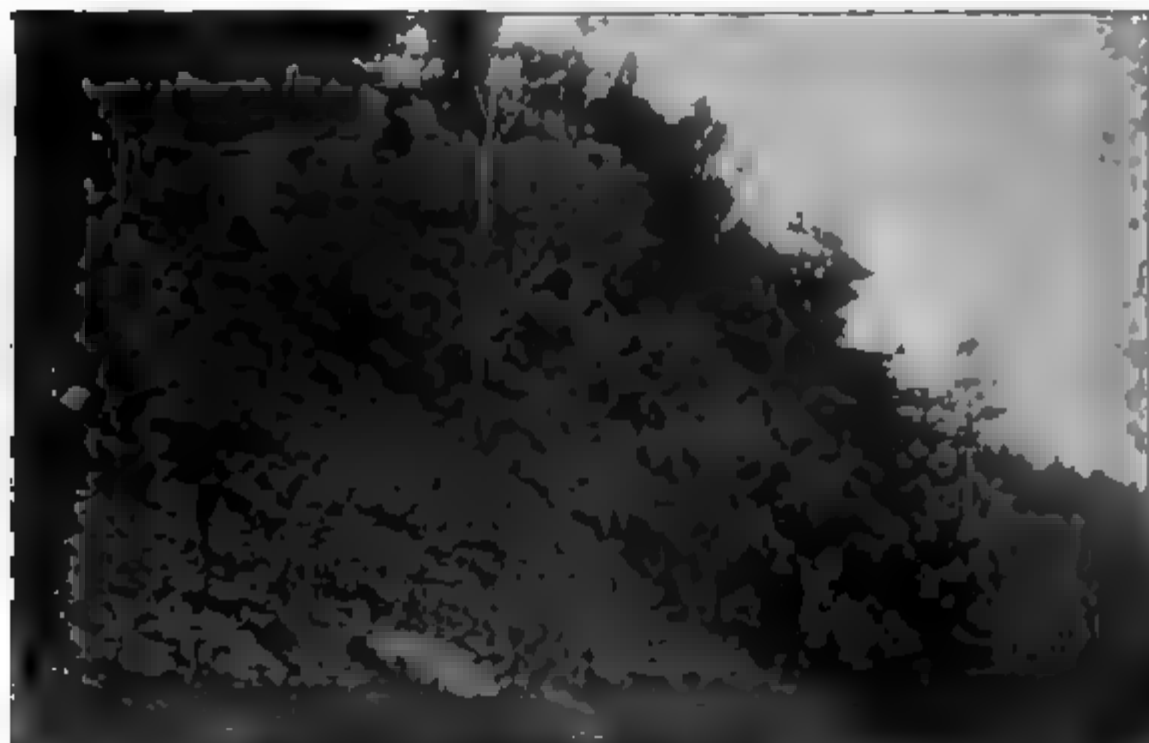


Map of Pine Rock. Heights reckoned from high-tide level. Areas of the
with dotted outline.

position (35° to 40° from a vertical) is given the dike in fig. 2, in which D I K E represents a section of it between its sandstone

The southern wall of the dike is the roof of the cave; the rock has the fine texture and fissured surface usual where it cooled in contact with the sandstone. Just above the cave,

4.



Inclined columns of Pine Rock, above the "Cave."

where the exterior is removed, the surface is made up of the ends of rude columns. A profile view of these inclined columns from a point just south is shown in fig. 4.*

At *w*, (see the preceding map) the *north* wall of the inclined dike is uncovered for a height of 50 feet, the sandstone having been carried off by the glacier.†

At the eastern extremity of Pine Rock (near *C'*), the trap of the north wall may be seen in contact with hard-baked sandstone. In the large quarry just south, the rock exhibits finely the transverse lamination crossing the dike—referred to on page 82. The laminae incline 10° to 15° to the eastward, the dip being 80 to 85° to the westward. The surfaces of the plates are usually yellowish-brown with limonite for scores of feet from the summit, owing to the waters that penetrate from the surface downward and oxydize the iron of the rock; but in the transverse joints or cracks, which are less accessible to the waters, there is usually a coating of stilbite and sometimes

* From a photograph by G. N. Lawson, of the class at Yale of 1890; taken in December, 1890.

† The shaping of the northern slopes of the Pine Rock ridge is a part of the same work of the ice; and the trend of the mass, like that of Sachem's Ridge, (Plate II), indicates the direction of movement of the glacier. The same is true for the northern slopes of Whitney Peak and Indian Head.

of other zeolites, as chabazite, analcite, heulandite.* The dike has a few transverse courses of fracture containing prehnite and occasionally apophyllite, but no longitudinal have been observed.

A sandstone ridge connects A and BB', in which the rock is hard, and has the strike N. 40°–45° E., and the dip 45° S., becoming N. 30° E. and 30° to 35° in dip more to the west. It is mostly a coarse sandstone; but some layers contain stones 4 to 5 inches in diameter.

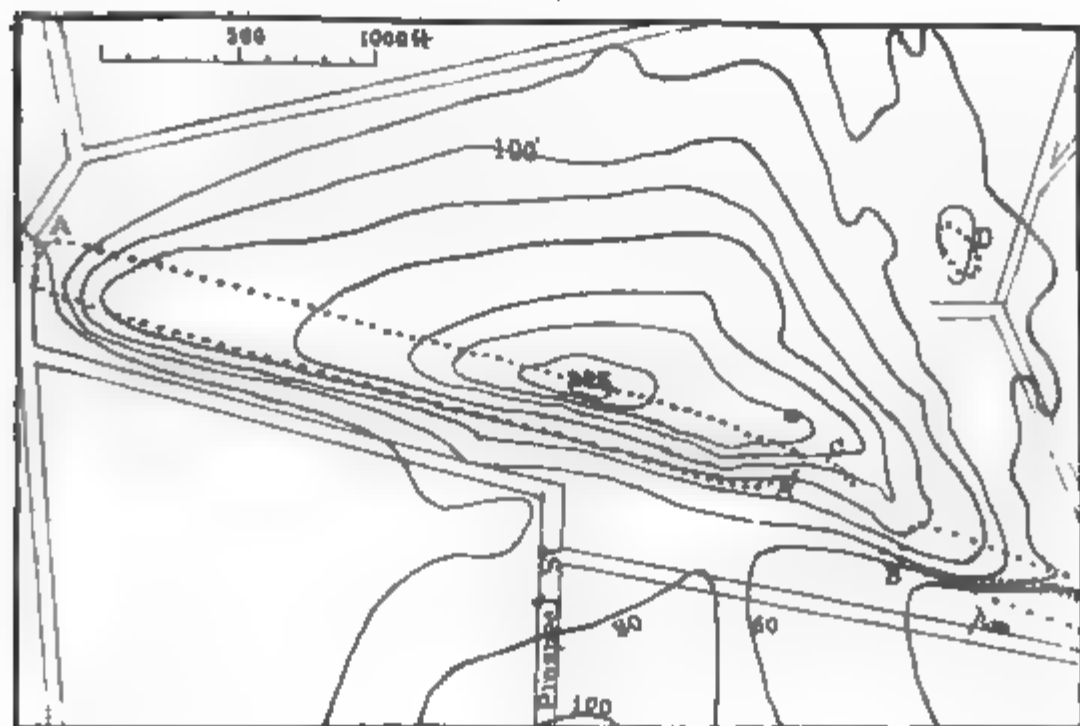
Origin of the Features of the Rock.

The existence of so many outlets of trap in the small space, and the irregular forms of the areas are unusual facts. BB' is short, broad and blunt, shield-shaped; and CC', is duck-like in shape, the irregular bosses at the northwest end (EE') making the neck and head. These bosses are not in the line of the dike, and must be due to a local catastrophe. In view of the great inclination of the fissure, and its depth of 2000 to 3000 feet in the weak sandstone, a caving in of some part of its northern or hanging wall would be of extreme probability. Such a catastrophe would account for the stoppage of the outflow and the separation thus of BB' and CC'; and such a stoppage of the up-thrust lavas would explain their escape by one or more extemporized outlets, and for the actual position of the apertures on the *north* side of the fissure; and thereby for the making of the bosses. The obstructed lavas of the fissure may also have found exit in the western dike, A.

The trap-mass D is possibly a result of a second smaller catastrophe of like character; but its separation from CC', may be a result of erosion.

the western, AA', the eastern, BB'; north of the gap between these, a short narrow dike C, and farther north, the isolated area, D. The width of the first, AA', (as measured at its west end) is 200 feet; of the second, 140 or 150 feet; of the third, 1 to 10 feet; of the fourth, 50 feet, the length being 150. The mass BB' continues to Mill River where the surface of the country declines to tide level. But the trap does not stop here; it crosses the river and extends on eastward, with an increased width, 180 feet, to the summit of Whitney Peak. The Whitney Peak dike belongs therefore to the Mill Rock region, although topographically part of the East Rock area. The trend of the Whitney Peak portion is S. 68° E.; of AA', S. 78° E. The mean course for the whole series to the summit of Whitney Peak is about S. 72° E.

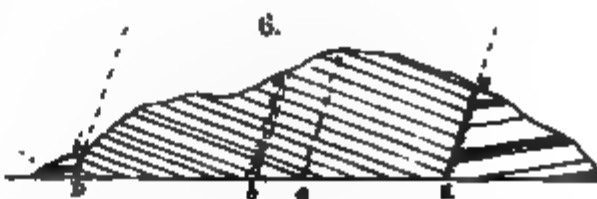
5.



Map of Mill Rock, excepting its eastern extremity. Trap areas with dotted outlines.

The dip or pitch of the main dike is about 72° to the northward, or 18° from the vertical. This inclination and the course of the columnar fractures are well exhibited at the west end of the dike, A, and are represented in figure 6.

Besides the columnar fractures at right angles to the walls, there are also longitudinal fractures in interrupted lines, parallel to the walls. Two are seen at the west end of the Rock and are indicated in the above figure. They are now mineral veins. The more south-



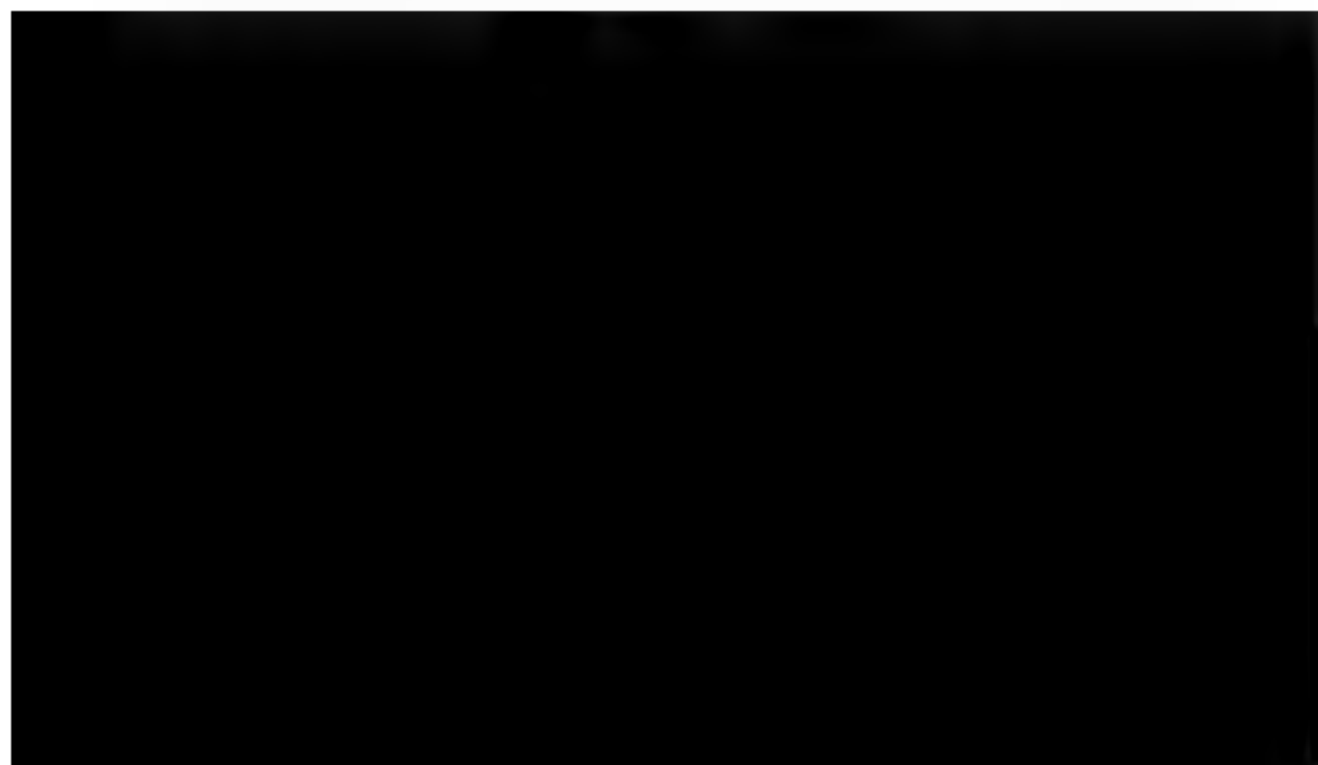
Section of Mill Rock, west end.

ern one, *a*, contains chiefly prehnite, with traces of copper ore, and the trap along its course is solid or little altered. The other is situated about half way between the sides. It contains abundantly the very hydrous mineral laumontite and the trap along it is decomposed; it contains also impure chlorite, and is fragile for a breadth of six to ten inches. A similar laumontite vein, but nearer the north wall of the dike, is seen at Whitneyville, and also in the trap of Whitney Peak.

The junction of the Whitney Peak part of the dike with BB' takes place in the bed of the stream at Whitneyville, and is not now exposed to view owing to the dam and the buildings below it.*

The level of the trap beneath the dam is but a few feet above and below tide level. The height of the Whitney Peak dike increases eastward; first by a sudden rise of 100 feet, and then more gradually in the last 500 yards to 280 feet. Whitney Peak has a bold front to the eastward with sandstone at its base showing a sudden stoppage of the fissure in that direction; and at the same place it widens southward—not by overflow, as the precipitous eastward front and the depth of the trap shows, but through the opening of a transverse fissure. The Rock has a steep wall 70 to 80 feet high, on the north side of the summit for nearly 100 yards; but this is due to the removal of the sandstone by glacier action, exposing the north wall of the trap dike.

The narrow dike C is about 110 feet long. It is situated in the face of a bluff of sandstone; and from the evidences of heat in the hardness of the rock, its mottled and light gray color in places, its steam tubes, and epidote, it is plain that the ejection determined the resisting power of the sandstone against denuding agencies. The following figures represent



a narrow stream of trap (fig. 9), coming out above a layer of the sandstone 5 to 6 feet thick, the main part of the dike appearing below. This envelope of sandstone by trap continues for 30 feet, when the two parts come together again. The depth at which the side stream goes off from the main dike is not known. The inclination of the dike is mostly 25° to 28° (fig. 7) from a vertical, but at 45 feet from the west end it becomes 40° (fig. 8), and 10 feet beyond this, 30° .

The sandstone of the Mill Rock region is of all degrees of coarseness up to cobble-stone conglomerate; and no distinction is observable between that of the west and east ends.

Origin of the Mill Rock features.

The subdivision of the trap into its four masses may be explained in the same way as that in the Pine Rock area. A downfall of the northern sandstone wall of the fissure, the hanging wall, would account for the separation of AA' and BB'. Further, the obstruction thus occasioned to the great ascending stream—its width 150 to 200 feet—would have forced open passages to the surface for the discharge of the liquid trap, and thus may have been produced the small dike C, situated near the fissure wall, and the remoter mass D. The irregularities of the little dike C, and the situation of both C and D to the north of the line of the dike, accord with this idea of a downfall of a part of the northern wall. The liability to such a catastrophe in a wall made of the rude sandstone 3000 feet or more high, and having a large inclination, was augmented in both Pine Rock and Mill Rock by the tilted position and faulted state of the sandstone. The beds had already received their eastward dip of 15° to 25° , and breaks and faults innumerable that had been made in the adjustment to the new tilted position; it was therefore a tottlish structure overhanging a profound abyss. The fact here introduced that the eastward pitch of the sandstone was given it before the ejection of the trap is sustained by facts reported beyond. But an argument for it is afforded here: for if this *eastward* pitch were of subsequent origin, then the Whitney Peak end of the system should be the lowest. Instead of this it is greatly the highest; the ridge slopes westward.

It is possible that the fissures of AA' and BB' were, from the first, independent fissures to a considerable depth; for they are not in precisely the same line. If this were so, the above explanation, while in the chief points right, would require some modification.

As in Pine Rock, so with Mill Rock but to a less degree, the northward pitch of the dike made it easy of degradation

by sea-shore action. Through such means, beyond doubt, the part of it extending from Mill River westward for 300 yards, was reduced to a width above ground of 40 to 50 feet. This narrowing commences just west of the Pumping House of the City Water Works (*p*, fig. 5), and continues without interruption to the river. It is part of the evidence of a greater New Haven Bay at some former time.

Why the range falls gradually to so low a level at Whitneyville, appears to be explained only on the view that less trap here came to the surface. I have elsewhere shown that it cannot be due to glacial removal. Neither is it probable that fluvial or marine waters have produced it. We have to attribute it to some condition existing or produced in the supply-fissures of eastern Mill Rock and Whitney Peak, at the time they were opened.

Besides the dikes of Pine Rock and Mill Rock, there is another transverse dike of special interest which intersects the West Rock ridge just below the margin of Wintergreen Lake, or about one and a quarter miles north of the southern termination of the ridge and four miles from New Haven Bay. It descends the eastern slope of West Rock in an interrupted ridge, forms part of the southern bank of Wintergreen Lake, sinks to the level of the West Rock surface at the summit, but stands out like a buttress along the steep west front of the Rock. From the last feature I have called it for the past twenty years, the "Buttress dike." It extends south-westward through the metamorphic region of the towns of Woodbridge and Orange to the mouth of the Housatonic—as long since mapped and described by Percival. This dike has a pitch northward, amounting to 25° from a vertical in the part of it intersecting West Rock, but in that through the metamorphic rocks it is nearly horizontal*. The studies of



denudation by the sea, rivers and ice, it has lost all of the sandstone formation that may have covered the summit, and for the most part that over its slopes above the 200-foot contour-line. The form of its upper portion is therefore largely that of the trap in its constitution—the hard rock that was most successful in resisting wear. This fact gives special interest to the larger and more detailed topographical map making Plate III, as will appear beyond.*

To the north is Whitney Peak, which has already been described as the eastern extremity of the Mill Rock series. South of this and of a large area of sandstone, are East Rock and Indian Head, one in trap surface, but in fact the result of two independent outflows. To the south of Indian Head is Snake Rock, which also has its large trap mass, but is peculiar in having ridges of hard-baked sandstone that are higher than those of trap. The East Rock areas of trap here referred to are lettered on the map BB', CC'C'', DD'. Besides these there is a more northern one, lettered AA', which lies near the eastern foot of Whitney Peak.

The trap-mass AA'.—This northernmost mass, is about one hundred yards long. At its northern end it is only forty feet distant from the trap of Whitney Peak, and it is a question, therefore, whether it is not a part of the latter dike. But it is separated from it by outcropping sandstone, except where the interval is narrowest, and at this point there was until recently drained, a standing pool of water, a pretty good indication that sandstone exists beneath, since trap is commonly too much fissured to hold water or afford springs. Moreover, the mass AA' has the trend of the East Rock series; and,


* The map of East Rock Park which is the basis of Plate III, was obtained from the Engineer department in New Haven, through the City Engineer, Mr. A. B. Hill. The roads of the Park from the termination of Orange St., around by the north to the summit of East Rock are lettered *F*, and the others *E*. These letters refer to two citizens of New Haven, Henry Farnam and James E. English, who liberally bore the expense of their construction. The topography is in part from the Bache Coast Survey map: but the accuracy of its contour lines was not sufficient for their transfer to the Park map. The heights are reckoned from high tide. The map is indebted to Prof. S. E. Barney, for the determination by leveling of the height of the highest point of East Rock, just south of the monument (358½ feet) and also of other points on its south and east sides, and for that of the junction of the trap and sandstone on the west front near Orange St. bridge (155 feet). The height of the bolt at the Coast Survey Station he found to be 343 feet, and the height of the top of the first step leading to the terrace about the monument, 355 feet. (Prof. Barney's figures are underscored on the map). The circuit road about the summit has a height of 320 to 350 feet; and the nearly parallel road on the east rises from about 216 feet near the quarries south of the summit, to 270 near the junction of the "Farnam drive" and "English drive," and thence declines northward to about 250 where it bends westward. The letters *S* on the map indicate an outcrop of sandstone in the vicinity of junctions with the trap.

In giving the topography of the Rock, the quarry excavations on the south side above a level of 216 feet are not introduced, it seeming best to represent the Rock in its original form. They are separately mapped on the plate.

besides, ledges of trap along the east side appear to indicate that the supply of liquid rock was from the eastward, like that of East Rock. On this view it is the northern mass of the East Rock series.

East Rock proper.—The trap mass BB', or East Rock, curves around from N. 25° E., on the north to N. 75° W. at the southwest extremity. Adding to it the Indian Head mass, it ends in an east-and-west dike, and is a complete crescent in outline. It has a bold columnar front, in which the columns incline about 22° from a vertical—the position, being, as is usual, at right angles to the mean dip of the tilted sandstone. A view of the southwest front of the Rock is presented on Plate IV. Plate V illustrates the character and inclined position of the columns, and shows the contrast in the latter respect with Pine Rock.

The upper 200 feet are of trap. The junction of the columnar trap with the sandstone is exposed to view at several points along the front. One such exposure may be seen when crossing the Orange Street bridge. The view in Plate IV, in which the bridge appears in the foreground, has the exposure half way up the front to the right. The height of the junction plane above mean tide at this place is 155 feet. Another is faintly indicated on the same plate directly below the Refreshment House; the height of the junction is there 150 feet. In other exposures of the junction-plane to the north, the height is less and becomes only 85 feet near the Rock Lane bridge; and it is also less to the south being but 132½ feet at B', the southwest angle of the trap mass. Since the strike of the sandstone of the region is about N 30° W., the sandstone (or the junction plane) has its greatest height, 155 feet, where the



height, descends at the angle mentioned. Since the surface there exposed became solidified against the northern sandstone wall of the fissure, the rock is of fine-grained texture and has an irregularly rifted aspect. The foot of the wall is about 200 feet above high tide, and from it the land, underlaid by sandstone, slopes off gently to the eastward. Since the direction of this wall of trap is S. 15° W., or that of the movement of the ice over this region in the Glacial era, the wall escaped the tearing action of the glacier, and so retains its original surface.

Farther south, along a line from *d* to *e*, there is a similarly steep slope, but it is made of displaced blocks of trap. At its base there is a flat, terrace-like surface, which is near 200 feet above tide level. This steep slope appears hence to have been the course of the wall of another part of the supply-fissure. The flat terrace, although nearly 100 feet wide, is without stones over its surface of either trap or sandstone except in its southern portion, and there occur sandstone in fragments along with trap, and an outcrop of sandstone over trap at S. This fact and the occurrence of a perennial spring in this southern part (at the point toward which the two paths on the map, Plate III, descend) make it probable that the terrace rests on sandstone, and that this sandstone was that bounding on the east, the supply-fissure above referred to.

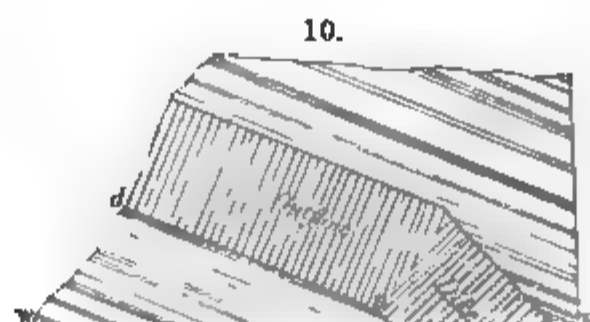
But there is trap again to the east of this terrace, showing that the lower eastern slopes were supplied from a more eastern fissure. Along from *c* to *d*, the trap of the outer fissure appears to have flowed over and coalesced with that of the inner. Again south of *e*, the distinction of the two fissures cannot be made out. But the fact that the supply-fissures, one or both had a large inclination—not far from 45° —is evident from the very steep slope of the surface.

Sections of the dikes of trap are nowhere exposed, and hence we are ignorant of the width of the supply-fissures. Judging from those of Mill Rock and Pine Rock, it may have been 150, 200 or 300 feet; but it was possibly much less.

The Outflows.—In East Rock, the trap which overlies the sandstone along the front, was that of outflows from the fissures westward between layers of the tilted sandstone. The fact that the columns of trap have a position at right angles nearly to the inclined layers of sandstone is believed to be good evidence of this intrusion of the melted trap.

Fig. 10 represents the view that has ordinarily been held with regard to the relative positions of the trap and sandstone. According to it the trap left the dike to flow westward between sandstone layers having a dip of 20° to 25° . A space was opened between the layers of sandstone which the liquid

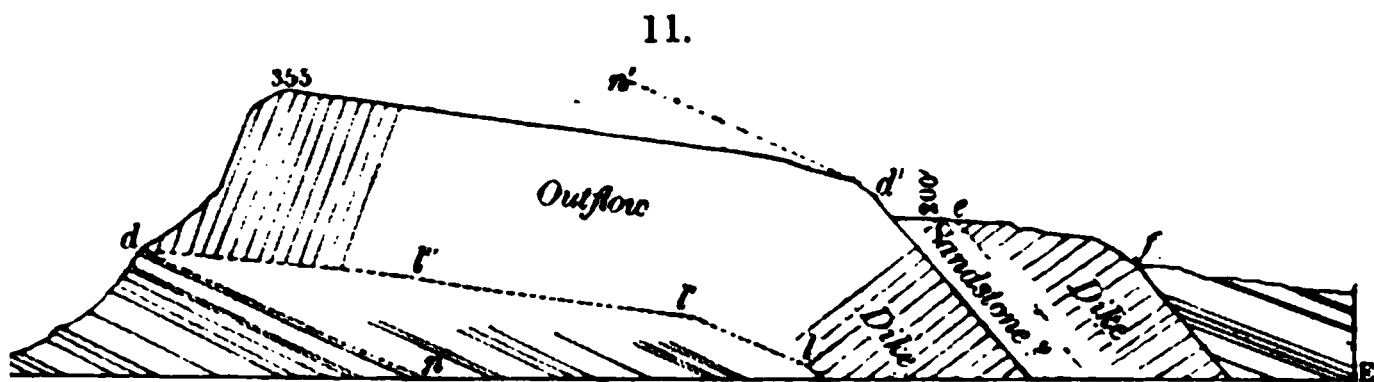
trap filled. It is plain that this chamber could not have been so opened in advance of the inflow; for the hanging wall of the weak sandstone inclined 65° would have had no support. It is hence evident that the ascending stream of trap, forced



Ideal Section of East Rock before the removal of the sandstone from the summit.

along its course, opened a way between the layers; that a tongue of trap first entered, which would have been partly cooled against the cold rock; but the flow was kept up below this first intruding portion until the trap had all entered, the lifting of the overlying sandstone going on as it needed more space. This lifting would have brought a strain on the sandstone that would have broken the connection between the lifted portion and that either side, to the northward, westward and southwestward. To the question, therefore, how far did the trap flow westward, the conditions reply: to the wall of such a fracture; and it may not have extended many rods beyond the present limit. The sandstone of the western wall has disappeared in the general denudation over the New Haven region, excepting a small part at the southwest angle, where a zigzag path (Z. Plate III) ascends to its top; the height of this sandstone is 185 feet, which is twenty-five feet

to west (or more exactly E.S.E. to W.S.W. since this is approximately the direction of a transverse diameter) drawn to scale, fig. 11, throws some light on these points.



Section of East Rock, showing the correct profile.

This section is essentially right in its profile, but more or doubtful in its interior lines. The height of the upper face of the outflow where it left the dike at d' is 265 to 270. It was not less than this; for we have this height for top of the bare, unabraded wall of trap (adding the part of under the Summer House west of the road). The length of overflow to the present western front, is, as already stated, at 300 yards. The height of the western brow of trap in section is 355 feet;* and that of the bottom of the trap in western front, 155 feet. These are facts; and the divergence here from figure 10 is very great. Further, the mean dip of the trap surface over the summit is 10° instead of 22° , mean dip of the sandstone. The latter dip is shown in lines dn ; and if the floor had originally this pitch through the thickness of the trap would have been about 450 feet, being the distance on the scale of the section between dn and $d'n'$, while actually it is only 200 to 210 feet.

The question arises: How was the lower slope of 10° attained, and how the lessened thickness. Are they a result of work by glacial or other methods; or was the present slope approximately the original slope of the outflow? A large amount of observation over trap ridges leads me to believe that the loss over East and West Rocks by abrasion has been small, probably not over 50 feet. The glacier, as it was shoved up, might easily have torn off columns from the front, but would have made little impression on the exposed surfaces. Moreover glacial abrasion would hardly have left the highest points of the summit so near the western edge.

If the outline of the summit approaches that of the original flow, then— d being the lower limit of the trap on the front line drawn from d nearly parallel to the summit plane,

This is the height 80 feet north of the Summit Refreshment House, just west of the road, this being the highest point over this northern half of the summit

would probably represent the position of the bottom of the outflow. The line $d\ l''\ l'\ l$ has been drawn on this view. It supposes that the trap, on leaving the dike, passed between two layers of sandstone from l to l'' and that afterward it broke away the layer beneath it and flowed on, either over the edges or surfaces of layers as the conditions favored.

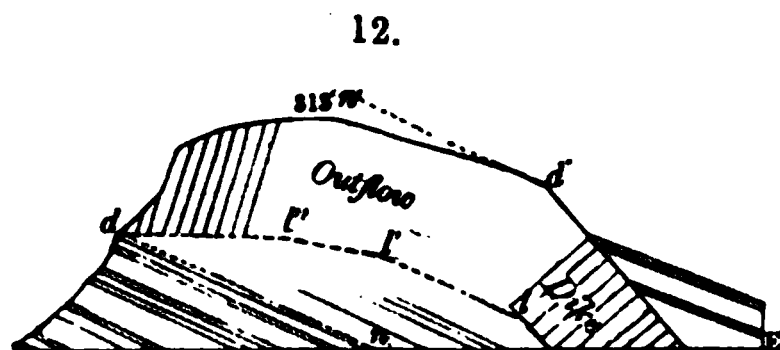
The only spot where a section of the floor or plane of junction of trap and sandstone, is seen, is at A' , the south-south-west corner of the trap-mass, by the road-side. There, for a few yards, the trap *rests on upturned ledges* of sandstone, and not on one continuous layer. The section is too short for any reliable conclusion were it not sustained by facts from West Rock.

The section, fig. 11, also represents the *inner* and *outer* dikes described above, with the intervening (?) sandstone. The doubts with regard to the widths of these dikes and the area of sandstone have already been the subject of remark.

Columns stand out boldly on the steep western front of East Rock. But they have none of the normal forms, for the angle between the most prominent faces frequently approaches a right angle, resulting from a combination of the plane of fracture at right angles to the trap-mass and another transverse. The direction of these planes varies along the course of the Rock on account of the curve in its outlines. At the quarry, on the south side of the summit, at the termination of the zigzag path Z , there is a fine display of broad surfaces in the two directions meeting nearly at a right angle. The courses here are about $N. 35^\circ E.$ and $N. 55^\circ W.$ The surface of one of them for many square yards is covered with rosettes of garnets and scattered minute crystals of magnetite, their faces



of East Rock and 110 below that of Indian Head, and probably sandstone intervened for the greater part of this depth; for the two Rocks face one another with steep slopes, as well brought out on the map, Plate III. These continue to be



Section of Indian Head.

steep to the very foot of each, where they approach one another down the eastern slopes. Their bases are here in independent valleys, designated on the map by the letters E and I, separated by a low trap ridge, R, so that East Rock and Indian Head, although the trap extends over the surface of the gap from one to the other, are nowhere united at base. The eastward sloping valley, I, lying at the northeast foot of Indian Head is continued in a westward sloping valley I', at its northwestern foot, and the two together define its outline. The low trap ridge R, between E and I, although consisting at surface mostly of blocks of trap, has a solid ledge in its lower part. It probably crosses the gap westward; and the Summer House, near 201 on Plate III, may be on its western part. The valley E, at the southeast foot of East Rock, is perhaps, a result of glacial action; but why there should be two valleys side-by-side if erosion made either, is not explained.

The trap of Indian Head rises from the bottom of the small valley just mentioned apparently in two half-separated streams instead of one even stream; but this feature may be a result of erosion. The eastern outline of the trap (see Plate III) is in a line with the eastern of the East Rock trap, indicating that the supply-fissure corresponded in direction with the outer and not the inner of the East Rock courses of fissures. The two Rocks, although alike in features, are to a large degree independent. Abrasion helped to deepen the gap between them, but more by the removal of sandstone than of trap.

Indian Head is peculiar in having a long eastward projection from the southern end. It is described on a following page.

The mode of origin of the trap-masses of East Rock and Indian Head—by a forced flow of lava, opening through its uplifting action, a chamber in the sandstone for its accommodation—entitles the two to be called *laccoliths*. Through degradation, stripping them of the covering of sandstone, they stand side-by-side—a pair of laccoliths.

Snake Rock.—In Snake Rock, a broad mass of trap measuring about 900 by 450 feet in its two diameters lies encased in sandstone. The greatest height of the trap is but 160 feet, and that of the sandstone west of it over 200 feet. The trap covers the eastern slope of the Rock nearly to its foot, thus showing that the supply-fissure was on that side, as in other parts of the East Rock series, and also indicating by its steepness that the fissure was much inclined. At the south end of the Rock, in the yard behind the north corner of the Bassermann house, at a junction of the trap and sandstone, the dip is about 45° ; and this is direct evidence as to the inclination.

The area of trap of Snake Rock has on the north the width of that of Indian Head; and the mass may hence owe its increased width northward to an outflow. If so, Snake Rock contains a half-emerged laccolith, its summit exposed, but the western wall of sandstone still standing and overtopping the trap. The sandstone shows everywhere the effects of hot vapors in all their varied forms, and before encroachments were made by a brewery there was a fine display of columnar sandstone in the southwestern bluff.

Origin of the breaks in the East Rock series.

The prominent breaks in the East Rock series are that between Indian Head and Snake Rock, and that separating the small northern area, AA', from the main East Rock mass, BB'.

The Indian Head and Snake Rock masses, CC' and DD', approach one another bluntly within a hundred yards, and the area of sandstone between has parallel sides, as the map, Plate III, shows. In view of the steep pitch of the supply-



a catastrophe that closed the fissure for the interval between them, which is only 200 feet wide, yet left it giving out heat, and generating volumes of hot vapors for the consolidating work.

The East Rock masses of trap may therefore be traced to two ranges of fissures. The western was the probable source of the most northern area, AA, and of the summit portion of that of BB' on East Rock. The eastern, contributed to the lower slopes of East Rock; and also through its continuation southward gave origin to the trap of Indian Head and Snake Rock. But for the accident to the hanging wall of the great fissure, the trap of Indian Head and Snake Rock would have made one continuous mass, and the columnar front of the former might have been continued over part of the present Snake Rock area. The areas of trap in the East Rock series narrow both to the south and the north.

4. WEST ROCK.

The facts and conclusions relating to the West Rock region derive prominent interest from their pertaining to one of the long trap-ranges of the Connecticut Valley region. The area is represented on the accompanying map, Plate VI, from a survey made by the author with chain and hand-level in 1879 and 1880. The 20-foot contour-lines of the steep western and southern fronts of the Rock and the geographical positions are from Bache's Coast Survey map; but the other contour-lines exhibiting the surface features, which required for mapping detailed measurements, are those of the author.*

Features.—(1.) While the general course of the West Rock Range is north-and-south, the western foot of the blunt southern extremity bends round to an eastward course, and ends with north 30° east. The summit of the ridge also curves, in its last 500 yards, around to S. 70° E. or nearly to east-by-west. Its height in this part is 399 to 405 feet above high tide, the geodetic station at the extremity being 399 feet. The eastern foot of the ridge has no corresponding bend.

(2.) The trap of the Rock is a continued mass instead of being divided into several masses through a multiplication of outlets. But it has a large bay of sandstone, of triangular outline, in its southeastern portion, which from its form is called the Triangle. (3.) South of the Triangle there is a prolonged hook-like point making the southeast termination of the trap.

(4.) North of the Triangle commences the trap of the west slope of the mountain. For a distance of 500 feet near the foot, increasing to 800 feet above, the surface of the trap is here elevated sixty to eighty feet or more above the level

* The dotted line on Plate II is the north limit of the map, Plate VI. Heights C to Oa are plane-table results of Prof. H. A. Newton, from Bache's 399 as base.

farther north. Moreover it is raised into rounded ridges, and some of these ridges have a high inclined wall on the south side. The first of these walls adjoins the Triangle and has a height of seventy-five feet, a slope of about 45° and an even flat surface free from marks of abrasion. Another similar wall farther north is thirty feet high. The smaller troughs are mostly one to three yards deep. The angle of slope in the embossed surface between the 300-foot and 100-foot contour-lines is less than 17° ; and in the surface north of it less than 14° . (5.) The long, hook like point, above referred to, is not a simple ridge of trap, like that from an ordinary fissure, but consists, as seen along its northern side (Plate VI), of a series of rounded ridges which increase in height to the westward, like those of the elevated surface of trap on the other side of the Triangle. Moreover, all these wrinkle-like ridges, concave troughs and oblique walls, have a general parallelism. (6.) The embossed surface north of the Triangle has lost, through glacial abrasion, as a consequence of its elevation above the general level, all of the sandstone once covering it, even to the foot of the mountain, excepting small portions in two of the troughs. Farther north the sandstone remains in some places nearly to the 300-foot contour-line. (7.) The trap of the embossed area that was thus uncovered suffered little from the abrasion; for the rock of the surface has the fineness of grain and other characteristics of the contact rock. This is true also of the trap of the southeast point. Moreover, in many places on this point below 300 feet, the trap contains imbedded fragments of the sandstone which fell into it while it was still liquid. The trap of other parts of West Rock ridge rarely shows evidence of abrasion below a level of 300 feet. On the

undetermined. Exposures that will afford the facts are most likely to be found along the eastern base of the ridge. At one place where the surface of trap had been uncovered but not abraded, which was seemingly favorable for a safe conclusion, the slope was 25° to 30° , and suggested the angle of 30° for the inclination. But the trap at the place may have been part of the *outflow*, and not that of a dike. Observations along the eastern slope of the range farther north may obtain decisive facts.

The Outflow.—The slopes of the higher parts of the West Rock ridge, the pitch of the columns of the western front, and the resemblance in features of West Rock to East Rock, lead to a like conclusion for the two, that the outflow was laccolithic; in other words, that the liquid rock forced its way between layers of sandstone, and made the chamber it occupied. The present thickness of the mass is nearly 250 feet. The overlying sandstone is to a large extent the weak, chip-making rock of dark red and purplish color already described. It is remarkable that a rock of so feeble coherence could have been lifted in the way mentioned.

The questions suggested by East Rock here come up again: Whether the feeble slope of the surface from the west edge of the summit eastward to the 300-foot contour-line, and the small thickness of the trap, are due to abrasion, or whether the present conditions are nearly those of the original outflow. As the length of the outflow is nearly 500 yards, the mass, if forced up between layers dipping 25° eastward, would have had a much larger amount to lose by abrasion than in the case of East Rock.* Speculation is here set aside by the actual east-and-west section of the Rock which is presented along its southern front, and is shown in part on Plate VII, from a photograph.† It exhibits the trap resting, to the eastward, on

* The thickness does not admit of calculation, because the only datum besides the dip of the sandstone, is the height of the bottom of the trap over the sandstone on the west front (about 200 feet); the height of the outflow where it left the fissure is not ascertainable.

† The fine photograph was taken by M. W. Filley, of the firm of Bundy & Filley, of New Haven. The sandstone has here been exposed to view by the removal of the debris for macadamizing. The irregular line in the plate a third of an inch above the sandstone was the limit of the talus or debris slope; and the line below the sandstone is the profile of the quarry wagon road. Along the part of the section represented, the height of this road is ninety to one hundred feet. If the debris were wholly removed to the bottom of the slope, the height of the sandstone exposed to view would be, where greatest, over 150 feet.

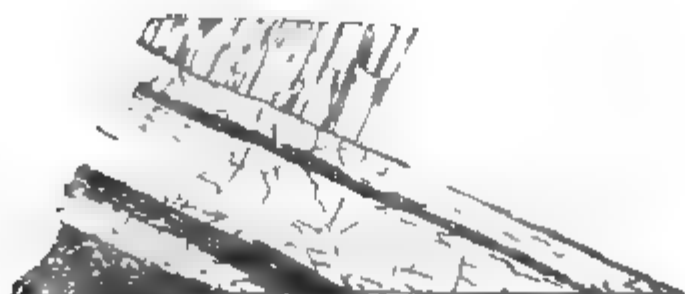
The photograph does great injustice to the view in the diminution of the vertical as compared with the horizontal scale, and also in flattening the angle of dip in the sandstone. 200 feet measured on the quarry road reaches from the eastern point of the sandstone section westward to within twenty-five feet of the line of the deep notch in the columnar front of the Rock (the place where the first section of sandstone ends); but this length applied vertically to the front above the road would make it only 180 feet in height, when in fact this height where greatest is over 300 feet. This error arises partly from the fact that the view was taken from the terrace opposite, which is only sixty feet high, but more from the error in an ordinary lens.

a tilted layer of the sandstone, the dip of which eastward is 25° . We are left to conjecture as regards the eastward and downward continuation of this layer to the supply-fissure (which the further removal of debris might perhaps uncover). But we know that the trap continues up this sloping layer for seventy-five yards from the commencement of the outcrop. It conforms to the theoretical view of an outflow as presented in fig. 10, on page 94.

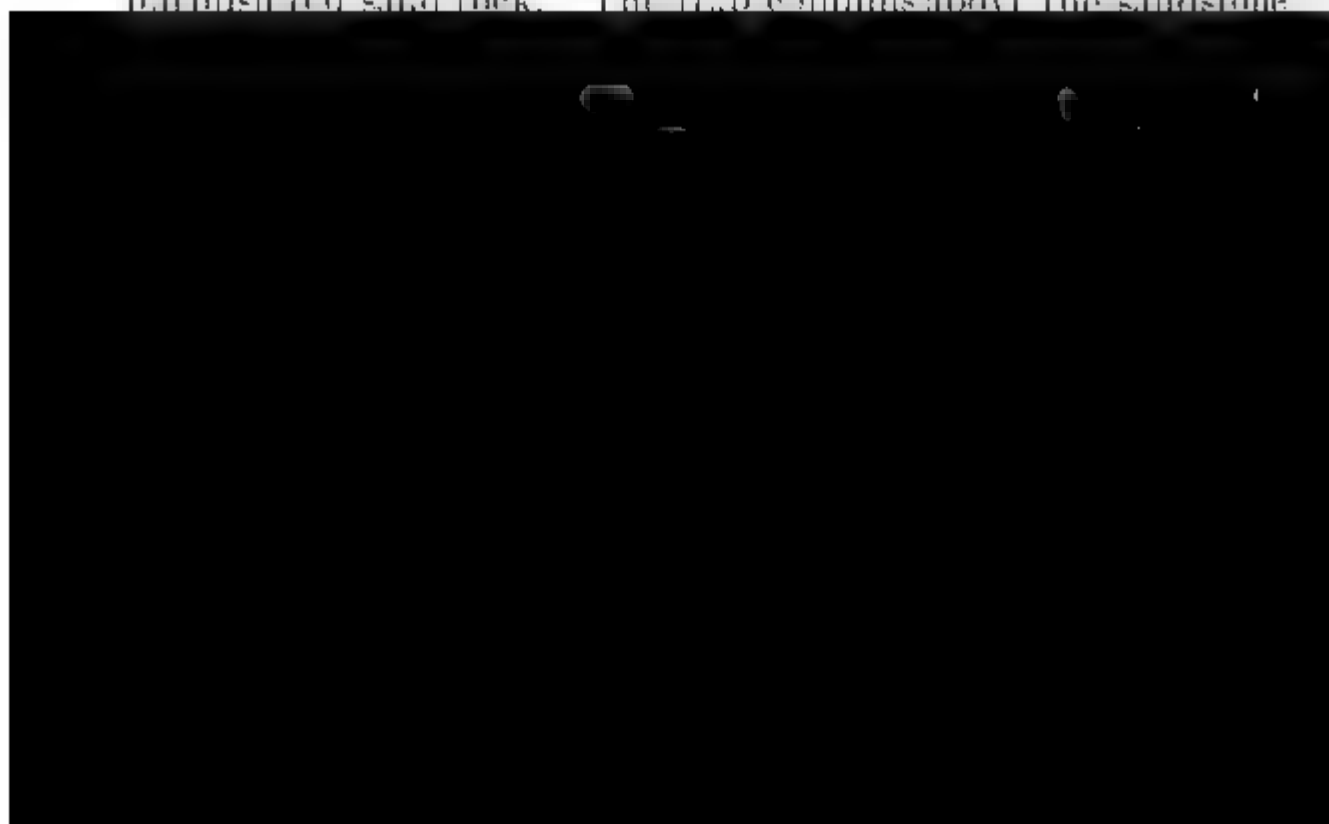
But on reaching the end of the seventy-five yards, there is a change. The trap beyond rests on the edges of the layers in a series of ledges of the sandstone. Moreover there is but little rise westward along the floor; for a line drawn along the top of the ledges would be almost horizontal, and have therefore near parallelism to the surface of the trap at the summit west of the geodetic station.

The following figure represents the eastern extremity of the sandstone for a height of fourteen feet, together with the

13.

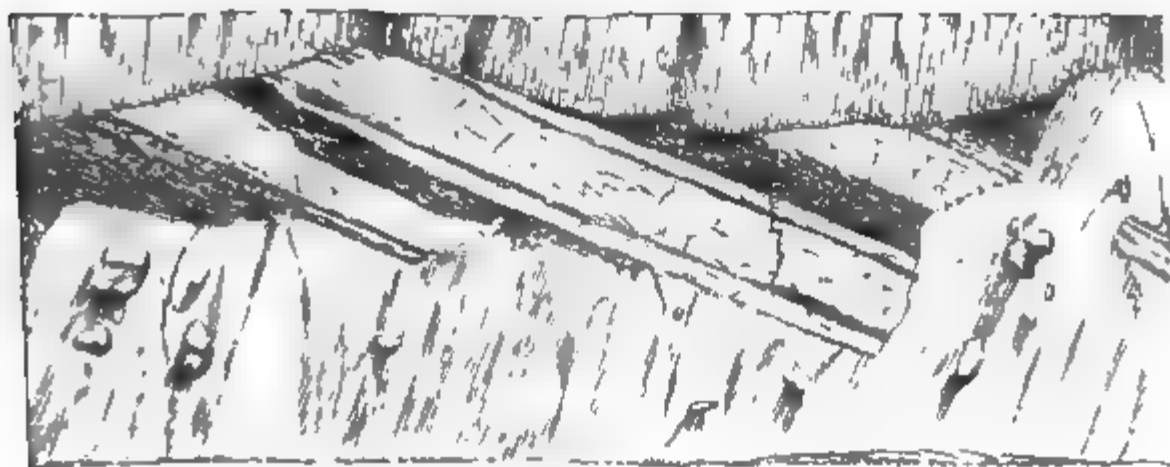


base of the overlying trap. The rock is partly a hard baked granitic sandstone, and partly the feeble shaly chip-making marshy red sand rock. The trap columns above the sandstone



character, excepting that the apparent dip is less. They may be followed westward along the quarryman's road for 400 yards, when they begin to pass into the normal sections of the western front, that is, sections in which the lines of bedding are horizontal because they are in the line of strike of the sandstone.

14.



The question here arises: Did the flowing trap, owing to its movement and weight, wear off the layers of sandstone and so make the succession of ledges on which it rests; or did it escape from its confining cover of sandstone into the open air and cover in its flow the exposed ledges of the region. The former is probably the correct view. Had the flow become subaerial there would have been at once a decline westward in the level of its upper surface; for the level would have fallen as soon as the resistance from confinement ceased. There is no evidence of such a decline. From points on the summit close to the western precipice the surface for the first 300 yards has generally a slope eastward of 1 to 4, or 1 to 5, corresponding to a pitch of 14° to 11° . The decline is eastward; not westward. Such a rise westward, even if only 5° , would be an impossibility except in a covered passage-way, that is, in the present case, one having a cover of the sandstone. Other evidence bearing in the same direction is afforded by the position of the columns along the western front, which pitch westward 15° to 20° .

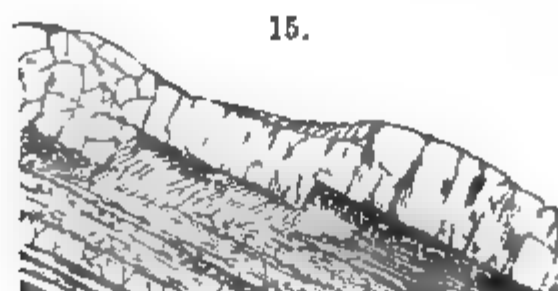
The summit slope eastward of 14° to 11° is less than the dip of the sandstone, and favors the conclusion that the underlying sandstone was in many places torn up by the heavily moving liquid trap, while left in place elsewhere. The floor so made consisted of alternations of wide strips that had the regular dip of the sandstone, with others abraded down to nearly flat and ledgy surfaces; and the former prevailed sufficiently to determine the direction of the contractional

fracture-planes or the columnar structure. A reduction so nearly to horizontality as that shown in the south front of West Rock along with parallelism in the profile of the summit may not be common.

West Rock teaches that the section of East Rock in fig. 11, p. 95, may be no exaggeration. Yet it is more probable that the original condition was intermediate between this position and that indicated in this diagram.

Sections similar to that in the south face of West Rock may be looked for, with some probability of success, among many of the trap-ranges of the Connecticut Valley wherever they terminate in transverse sections. All that is necessary to ascertain the truth is to remove the talus of trap debris.

Three miles east of New Haven (in East Haven) a section was opened in cutting for a carriage-road through the second trap ridge west of Saltonstall Lake; it is but a few rods west of the railroad station. The facts are in all respects similar to those of West Rock, as shown in the annexed figure. The



trap covers a series of ledges of upturned sandstone, and shows no traces of displacement subsequent to its cooling. The sandstone is intersected by extensive, nearly vertical frac-

The trap of this ridge, at a higher level above the sandstone, is more or less chloritic and in many places amygdaloidal. Part of the amygdules are slender cylinders, two to three inches long and like pipe-stems in size, occurring often in groups—the result probably of the sudden vaporization of particles of liquid carbonic acid.

In the railroad gap through the Saltonstall Ridge, the first west of Saltonstall Lake ("Pond Ridge" of Percival), the sandstone appears to lie in a similar manner unconformably beneath the western extension of the trap. But the section is now too much covered by debris for a satisfactory observation. Two miles east of the Saltonstall ridge in Branford, as described by Mr. E. O. Hovey,* the trap of a short range, the easternmost in this part of the sandstone region and near the gneiss boundary, overlies the *upturned* edges of the sandstone, and there is between the two rocks a layer of sandstone conglomerate containing nodules of trap, which he attributed to the rubbing action of the flowing trap on the sandstone.

These facts, ranging in this part of the Connecticut Valley over the whole breadth of the Jura-Trias formation, from the west side of the New Haven region where the trap is of the compact non-vesicular kind to the dikes of vesicular trap toward and near the eastern gneissic border, have great importance in their bearing on the subject of the other Jura-Trias ridges. The more eastern are placed by Professor Davis among the ridges made of horizontal subaerial flows, ejected before the upturning of the sandstone; and the more western he has regarded as horizontally ejected and subsequently upturned, although admitted to be interstitial intrusions. Neither of these conclusions are sustained by the facts which have been presented.

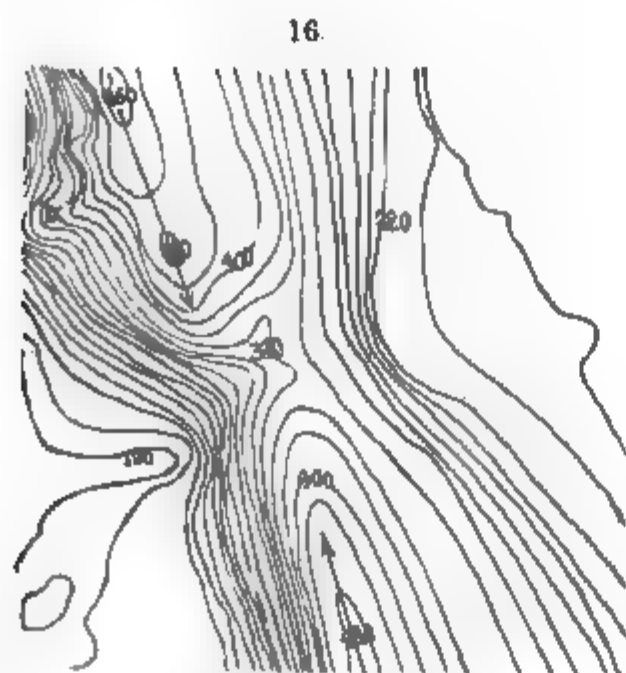
The facts prove further that the era of disturbance or of the upturning of the sandstone was not due in any way to the ejection or heat of the igneous rock. The latter event, although so extensive, was simply incident to the disturbance; the upturning preceded the eruptions.

Effects of Obstructions to the outflow.—Although the trap of West Rock—that is of the southern part of the West Rock ridge—is not divided into several areas, other effects of obstructions may be looked for, since the hanging wall of a large inclined fissure is sure to have its downfalls. The gaps or notches in the ridge indicate incipient division, and may be among the effects from such a cause. They may have been produced also by local narrowings of the fissure through horizontal or oblique movement of its walls, or in other ways; and it is a question whether the results of these two modes of origin can be dis-

* This Journal, vol. xxxviii, p. 361, 1889.

tinguished. The deeper and more abrupt notches we should be disposed to refer to the former cause.

As the Bache map of West Rock ridge indicates by its contour lines, within a mile and a quarter of the south end of West Rock, there are three gaps. Two are included on Plate II. At the first, the height of the ridge falls off sixty feet in the course of 500 yards. The second, situated 300 yards farther north, and called the "Judges' Notch" because near the "Judges' Cave," is similar to the first in depth, but narrows more down the western front. Half a mile farther



Wintergreen Notch.

north is the third, called the "Wintergreen Notch." It is one of the larger gaps in the ridge. Along the summit, both from the north and the south, there is a descent of 100 feet, from a height of 440 feet to 340. Figure 16, from the Bache map, exhibits the facts.* The decline is gradual on the south side, but very rapid northward; in the latter direction the level of 460 feet is reached at the same distance from the center of the gap as 440 on the south. This third gap is

probably one of those caused by obstructions to the outflow, whatever the fact with the others. The stream, in con-

460, but also 440 on the north side is to the west of 440 of the south side; but the height of 440 to the north is probably produced with a less thickness of trap. This notch is 300 yards south of the Buttress dike described on a former page; the position of this dike is shown on the above figure at *b*.

This example will suffice for illustration. Other gaps in the ridge occur farther north, but they are outside of the region here under consideration.

Obstructions to the outflow of lava while it was making its way between the layers of sandstone are also possible through any cause that would prevent the lifting of any portion of the overlying rock. The area of the Triangle has been described as an area of sandstone within the proper limits of the trap range. This sandstone was not lifted like the rest of the overlying stratum. Instead of this, it remained in place for the most part, and hence, forced the liquid rock to pass to one side of it. The lava, mainly took the north side; and so the trap of that side had its surface raised in level above the rock north and became the elevated embossed area already described. The great sloping trap wall making the north side of the Triangle is the wall of an oblique fissure in the sandstone formation. Along this fissure— 45° in inclination,—the sandstone of the south side, or that of the Triangle, lay unmoved or nearly so, while that of the north side was shoved up as the lavas came in below. Other walls, and the small ridges both north and south of the Triangle, are evidences of similar fractures, in parallel directions, with analogous results. The unlifted sandstone was in some way put under a strain that produced the parallel fracturing and movements.

The origin of the southern or western walls of West Rock is sufficiently explained in the remarks on this subject respecting East Rock (page 94).

The southern front of West Rock has a columnar aspect. But in reality no columns stand out with the boldness they have in East Rock. The surface is mostly made up of the cleavage surface or joints that are in its plane; and where there has been quarrying, these joints have great width as well as height.

3. RELATION OF THE EAST-AND-WEST AND NORTH-AND-SOUTH FISSURES, AND THE ORIGIN OF THESE COURSES.

These two courses of fissures are so locked together in the New Haven region that they evidently are results of one system of movements. They occur together in Pine Rock; and West Rock has the general trend of the Pine Rock ridge represented in the embossed area and the southeast point.

Mill Rock ends to the eastward in a south-southwest fissure, transverse to its main course which is apparently parallel to the adjoining part of the East Rock trap. East Rock commences with a nearly north-and-south course, but bends around to east-southeast. Mill Rock and Pine Rock are not necessarily synchronous in eruption with East Rock or West Rock, but they belong to one epoch of disturbance.

The origin of these courses is not fully ascertained. I have long explained the north-by-east trend of West Rock, and of the other ridges of like direction to the north, on the general principle that the mountain-making forces of Eastern America operated over any part of the area, as a general thing in the same direction from Archæan time onward, examples occurring in the Taconic and Jura-Trias elevations of the western half of New England. In accordance with this view the strike of the Jura-Trias should be that of the underlying crystalline rocks. It does not follow that a like dip prevails in the schists beneath. It is true however that the predominant dip in them, and in the Jura-Trias fissures and bedding, is eastward. This last fact seems to favor the suggestion of Professor Davis that the foliation of the underlying schists has determined the courses of fissures in the Jura-Trias area. This suggestion would have support in the fact, were it not that in New Jersey, where the same is true as to the dip of the underlying schists, the Jura-Trias fissures and bedding dip westward.

In the New Haven region, the idea of an accordance between direction of foliation in the schists and of fissures in the Jura-Trias finds no support. The West Rock ridge crosses the line of strike of the metamorphic schists two miles west of it at an

considered, the most elevated point being 736 feet above high tide.* But height means here, not larger accumulation of igneous rock or trap, but, simply, greater emergence above the sea-level; for this increase northward of height runs parallel with a like increase in the height of the metamorphic ridges just west; and it is continued, at a diminished rate, into Massachusetts.

Mt. Carmel has resemblances to Pine Rock. Its mean course is E. N. E.; and a north-and-south trend exists in its western part. But the north-and-south portion in Mt. Carmel is a large feature in the ridge and has direct continuity with the east-northeast portion.

The ridge is divided by a very deep and open gorge, into an eastern and a western section. The gorge is often called the "Neck," and the high summit adjoining it on the west, the "Head" of the "Sleeping Giant"—a name suggested by the form of the ridge as it appears lying on the northern horizon. Both have northern and southern slopes of sandstone, the southern going about half way to the top above its base, and the northern reaching a greater height.

The western section, while high and massive at its eastern extremity, falls off rapidly to the westward, and in half a mile is reduced to a narrow trap ridge not exceeding 100 feet in height above the adjoining country. Through this part within 300 yards, pass Mill River, a north-and-south carriage road (N. 20° W.) without change of grade, and, a few rods farther west a railroad. Along the railroad, and between the carriage road and the river, the course of the trap changes from about north-and-south to N. 10° E.; and as it crosses the river to N. 20° E. Thence it continues on to the summit, widening and increasing rapidly in height and curving still farther eastward.

At the section in the railroad cut, the trap is seen resting on its south wall of sandstone, the wall dipping about 45°—apparently indicating that the dike has this pitch. Between the carriage-road and Mill River, the north side of the trap has in many places a westward dip of the same angle, confirming the conclusion from the railroad section as to the large dip of the fissure. It is thus proved that the western section is a continuous mass of trap of gradually changing course and magnitude; and that it is strictly "transverse" in direction only along its eastern end. It is a dike to the westward and probably so throughout.

The eastern section is made one continuous mass of trap by Percival, and one also with the western portion. It is divided

* According to the leveling of two parties under Mr. Bache.

from east to west, as he states, by a valley, and in the valley there is a spring giving out a streamlet which flows northward. There are gaps in both the southern and northern sides, dividing them into a series of elevations. These elevations are indicated on Percival's map, so as to look as if he regarded them as separate dikes; but this is contrary to the description in his Report. I have looked for sandstone in two of the gaps of the south side, east of the "neck," and have found evidence in each that the trap is continuous, and descends in these gaps nearly half way to the base of the mountain. In the east-and-west valley the spring and streamlet are probable evidence that there is sandstone beneath; and on this ground, it may be that there are, in this eastern part of Mt. Carmel, two parallel east-and-west dikes.

Mt. Carmel appears to be a combination of dikes, without the "buried volcanoes" supposed to exist there by Professor Davis. In the view from the west side of Mill River there are in sight nearly 600 feet in height of massive trap, having no subdivision into sheets or layers, and nothing to suggest the idea of lava-streams in the depths below.

The union in this small ridge of approximately north-and-south and east-and-west courses is further proof of their mutual dependence in the system of movements attending the Jura-Trias mountain-making of the Connecticut Valley. But its origin remains unexplained.

Concluding Remarks.—A review of the principal conclusions in this paper is given in its introductory remarks (page 82), and a recapitulation here is therefore unnecessary.

The reader may have been led to the idea that the author

PT. XI.—*Notes on a Reconnaissance of the Ouachita Mountain System in Indian Territory*; by ROB'T T. HILL.*

synopsis.—General topographic features of Indian Territory including Oklahoma. The northern, middle and southern belts. The middle or mountainous belt. 1. The Eastern or Arkansas-Choctaw Division. 2. The Central or Chickasaw Division. 2a. The Wapenucka Sub-division. 2b. The Tishomingo Granite. 2c. The Arbuckle Mountains and Washita Water Gap. 3. The Wichita Division. Partial record of history recorded in the Ouachita System.

LITTLE has been written concerning the geography and geology of Indian Territory, and the writer presents this preliminary paper in hope that it will direct to that interesting region more careful and detailed study.

Topographically Indian Territory, especially its southern half, presents a great diversity of mountain, plain, forest and stream. Within this area is found the extension of nearly every topographic unit from the Missouri-Kansas region on the north to the Texas on the south, from the Great Plains of the west to the forests of Arkansas on the east; there are also many unique characteristic features of the region itself.

The territory may be provisionally divided into three parallel east and west belts, each containing a marked diversity of geologic structure and corresponding topographic expression. The northern or Cherokee-Oklahoma belt includes the country north of the Canadian; the greater part is prairie with spots of timber decreasing in density toward the west. This belt may be sub-divided into three districts; the eastern or Cherokee, the middle or Oklahoma, the western or Arrapahoe. The Cherokee division, with the exception of a small area of dark hills in the northeast corner, is mostly composed of Carboniferous rocks with an undulating topography similar to that of southeast Kansas. The Oklahoma section is a typical level bed region in its western half, with undulating prairies and soft disintegrating structure. The Arrapahoe division is a ragged eastern border of the great plains country, with its characteristic fresh water deposits of sands and grits occupying the flat divides, as originally described in the adjacent west Kansas region by Dr. J. S. Newberry and more recently by Professor Robt. Hay.† These plains are the newest or culminating formation in western Texas, Kansas and Indian Territory; they are now slowly receding westward because of the headwater erosion of the streams that indent this eastern border,

To Mr. James S. Stone, of Newton, Massachusetts, the writer is greatly indebted for his faithful assistance in conducting this investigation. Also to Mr. L. Davidson, a student of the University of Texas.

See Bulletin 57, U. S. Geological Survey.

M. JOUR. SCI.—THIRD SERIES, VOL. XLII, No. 248.—AUGUST, 1891.

stones and eruptives; the keystone or central Chickasaw region, consists of an area of granite and Silurian limestone.

1. *The Eastern or Arkansas-Choctaw Division.*—The northern two-thirds of the Choctaw nation and the northeastern Chickasaw country are a direct continuation of the mountains and geologic features of west-central Arkansas. This region consists of numerous timber-covered ridges varying in altitude from 2700 feet along the Arkansas line to 1200 along the Missouri, Kansas and Texas railroad. The ridges are usually elongated, timbered, devoid of sharp peaks and owe their present form to the unequal erosion of the exaggerated structural folds. The general trend of these mountains, corresponding with the strike of the folds, is south of westward, but often, as seen near Stringtown and along the Kiamitia River, it is nearer north and south. The ridges consist of sandstones, clays and shales apparently of the Carboniferous period, but further investigation may reveal older rocks. The rocks occur in numerous parallel, overlapping folds, which are nearly vertical in the southern and central portion of their extent, but become horizontal along their northern outline.

1.



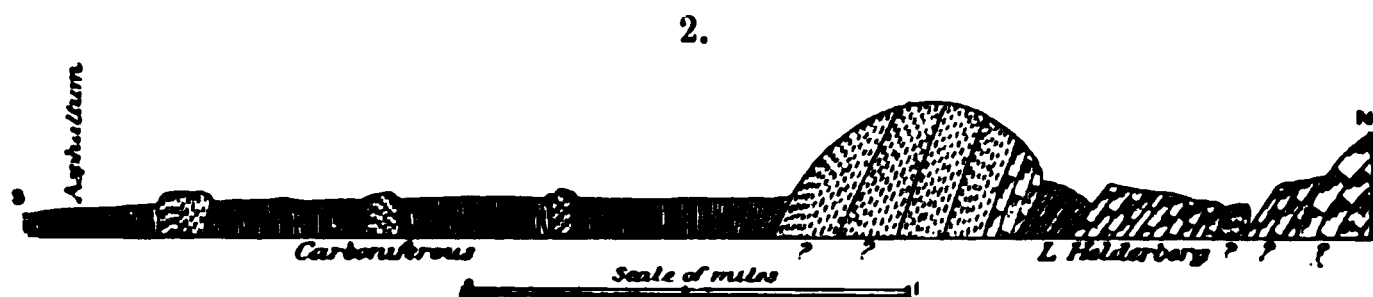
Section north and south across Red Bird Mts., showing relation of Mountain folds to Cretaceous Prairies.

The Saint Louis and San Francisco railroad, from Fort Smith, Arkansas, to Paris, Texas, passes through the heart of

prairies occupy the more compact clays of the valley. Even where the vertical outcrops have been eroded to a level plain, the alternations of sandstones and clays can often be traced for miles by the timber which follows the sandstone outcrops in narrow ribbon-like parallel belts. (See fig. 2.)

The northern half of this area contains coal strata whose extent and known occurrence are indicated on the map. An admirable paper upon the structure of these coal beds has been published by Mr. H. M. Chance.* Mr. Arthur Winslow† has equally well defined them in Arkansas. Mr. J. T. Munson of Denison, Texas, has much unpublished information concerning the formation of this region, and to him the writer is indebted for his invaluable assistance and data.

The coal fields, for which the name Fort Smith-McAllister area is most appropriate, are of great commercial importance, for they are the chief source of fuel supply for the Arkansas-Texas region. These extend along the northern border of the mountains and are terminated on the southwest by the Silurian and granite field of the Tishomingo district which are an apparent barrier between this and the Texas-Ardmore coal



Section north and south through Woodford, showing structure of Prairie and Mountain. Continuation of fig. 1.

field, the fuel of which is of an entirely different character and should not be confused with it‡ geographically, structurally, or economically.

Mr. Chance has published a section of the rocks of the eastern division. He estimates at least 8500 feet of coal-bearing strata, but the total thickness of the Carboniferous and Permo-Carboniferous, as seen in the folds near Ardmore, is greater by the addition of the uppermost or Permo-Carboniferous which here has a thickness of several thousand feet.

The most marked feature of these mountains is the excessive, compressed and vertical folding which the whole region has undergone, and the displacement of these folds by a lateral dislocation which has squeezed them into S-shaped flexures. So excessive is this folding that every stratum in

* *Geology of the Choctaw Coal Fields* by H. M. Chance. Transactions American Institute of Mining Engineers, Feb., 1890.

† *Arkansas Geological Survey, Report for 1888*, vol. iii.

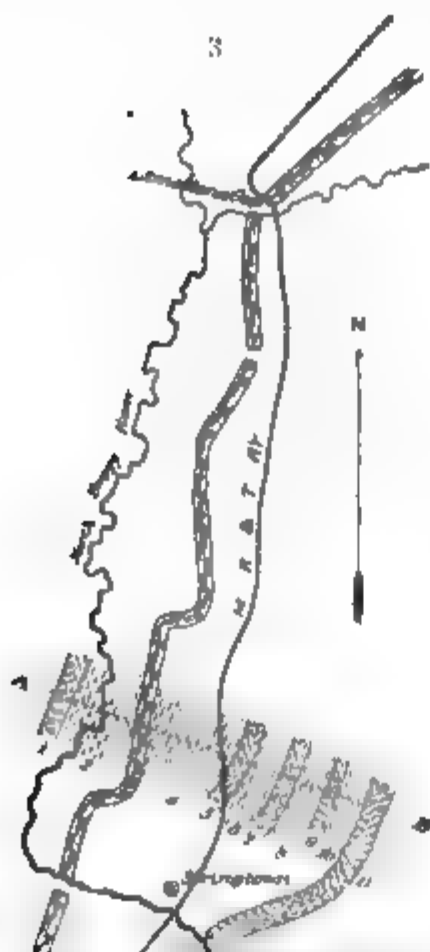
‡ The writer is inclined to believe that the greater excess of ash in the coals of the more horizontal Texas region is due to the calcium carbonate and other impurities deposited in the joints during their long submergence beneath the Cretaceous seas, while the McAllister coals have remained above water.

the mountain region south of the coal fields can be said literally to be standing vertically as shown in the figures. This system of folding is complicated and the writer has not had time for the minute study necessary to interpret it. In general, two great trends or strikes are conspicuous, the first and oldest is about 25° south of west; this is frequently dislocated by an apparently later movement resulting in northeast and

southwest trends, all of which are accompanied by overlapping and lack of continuity.* The direction of the folds has a marked effect on the political features of the region, all lines of transportation and public highways practically following the valleys of erosion in the trend of the folds.

The proof of two great dislocations of the Carboniferous strata is found in the mountains north of Atoka and in Limestone ridge where the vertical folds of the first epoch are deflected by S-shaped dislocations into the southeast course.

Of the many illustrations of this folding one of the finest is found in the peculiar limestone ridge which extends from near Lehigh to Limestone Gap and eastward. This is the principal limestone stratum of



Mr. Chance's map. Several sigmoid or S-shaped flexures occur along this section, and, also, in the sandstones of the Coal Measures of eastern Indian Territory and across the Territory to the Arkansas line.

The southern border of this old system has been degraded* by the shore lines of the ancient Cretaceous and Tertiary seas which overlapped it and planed it northward for many miles. The vertical edges of the planed off strata are buried beneath the Cretaceous sediments as shown in my former section along the Arkansas-Texas line, resulting in the complete interment of the Carboniferous system southward, throughout the great central denuded region of Texas where the only exposures of Carboniferous rocks are through erosion of the overlying Cretaceous layers. The structure of these mountains is of the Appalachian type, and Mr. Chance says that "topographically and structurally the Choctaw coal fields represent in miniature the features of the anthracite regions of Pennsylvania."

2. *The Central or Chickasaw Division.*—In the northeastern part of the Chickasaw nation the continuity of the Carboniferous rocks is terminated by an extensive area of Silurian limestones, which, in turn, are succeeded southward by underlying granites whose exact relation to the complicated Coal Measures is not determined, but which are exposed by the erosion of the latter and are unconformable beneath them.

2a. *The Eastern or Wapenucka* portion of this area is interesting, but little explored. It lies west of Boggy station along Delaware Creek at Bill Jackson's ranch, and near the quaint old Chickasaw academy of Wapenucka. There is a series of low limestone hills—apparently remnants of anticlinal folds—along whose strike flows the Delaware creek. In places these limestones resemble the blue Silurian limestone to be described in our discussion of the Arbuckle Mountains, but they are more horizontal in outcrop. In the collection of Mr. J. T. Munson, of Denison, who first called my attention to this interesting region, are fossils apparently Silurian in age *Orthoceras* and *Brachiopoda*, from Bill Jackson's ranch on the Delaware.†

Crinoidal limestones of Carboniferous age are the prevalent rocks and were collected near the academy at the southern border of the district, and the sandstones of apparent Carboniferous age and shales of that age begin there again. A single specimen of *Favosites*, of Silurian age, was collected from one

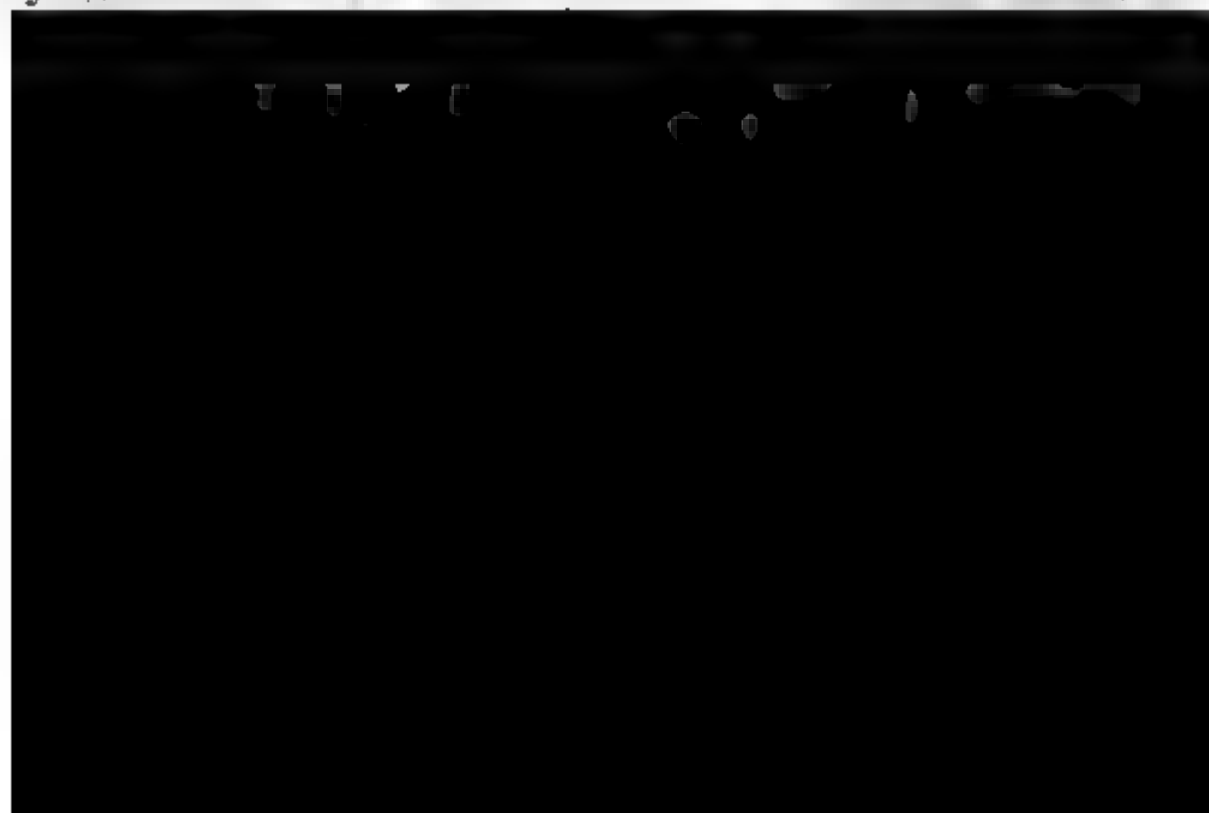
* Principal Events in North American Cretaceous History as revealed in the Arkansas-Texas Region, by Robt. T. Hill. This Journal, April, 1889.

† Professor Alpheus Hyatt, to whom I sent this specimen, says that he thinks there is little doubt that it is a fragment from the Hudson River group. The *Orthoceras* being closely related to one found at Cincinnati, and the brachiopod being probably *Orthis testudinaria*.

of the Delaware Mountains near the Hudson River limestone. The Delaware Mountains proper are a few long limestone ridges and detached buttes in the beautiful valley of Delaware Creek. Seven miles west of the academy, near Bill Jackson's, they are composed of limestone underlaid by the above mentioned Favosites sandstone—a porous gray quartzite with an occasional patch of limestone. The buttes are peculiarly distorted, their strata being disturbed at a very slight angle in many directions, which may be compared to the uneven curvature of a saddle.

The Delaware mountains were mentioned by Mr. Jules Marcon, who followed the old Fort Smith and Fort Washita trail which passed by them. He referred them to the Sub-Carboniferous or Mountain Limestone.* The scenery in the Valley of the Delaware is exquisite, the contrast between the low rounded hills and the extensive valleys with their peculiar buttes present a restful and varied landscape. The region promises rich scientific treasures to some future student who has time and facilities to work out its structure and history. It was impossible to trace the relation of the Wapennucka district to the Arbuckle Mountains to the westward, owing to dangers of exploration in a country where geologists are not welcome, but there is evidently a close connection if not continuity between them.

2b. *The Tishomingo Granite.*—In the heart of the Chickasaw nation south of and underlying the Wapennucka limestone district is an extensive granite area. This is the central division of our mountain region. It is a triangular area of sandy prairie land with low rounded granite hills and undulations lying between the Santa Fe and M. K. and T. railroad and



ture of diabase in a very marked degree." The dikes west 20° S. and are seen at the crossing of Mill Creek and Pennington Creek.

The northern margin of the granite area is overlaid by hard amorphosed, sub-horizontal Silurian limestone of the same type and flaggy lithologic aspect as the Upper Potsdam of Burnet County, Texas, but I could find no fossils. Carboniferous rocks cover its eastern point at Boggy station. The southern border was the sea-shore of the ancient Trinity and other Mesozoic and Cenozoic seas and is buried beneath Trinity sands. The western border is covered by Silurian Carboniferous rocks.* I saw no evidence that this granite is of later age than the oldest of the Paleozoic rocks which lie upon it.

2. *The Arbuckle Folds*—West of the Washita River the mountains again present a new and entirely different aspect. A long, elongated mass of low rounded barren limestone folds rises about 500 feet above the plain and extends east and west, between Wild Horse Creek and the Washita River for about forty miles, forming an almost impassable barrier for wagon travel. They are composed of folds of hard Silurian limestones. The trend of the mountains—north of west—corresponds with strike of the folds, but is opposite in direction to the prevalent trend of the Choctaw-Arkansas division. These folds are the hard persistent core of the structure, the inner and exterior Carboniferous layers having been eroded to the level of the Ardmore prairies. (See figures.)

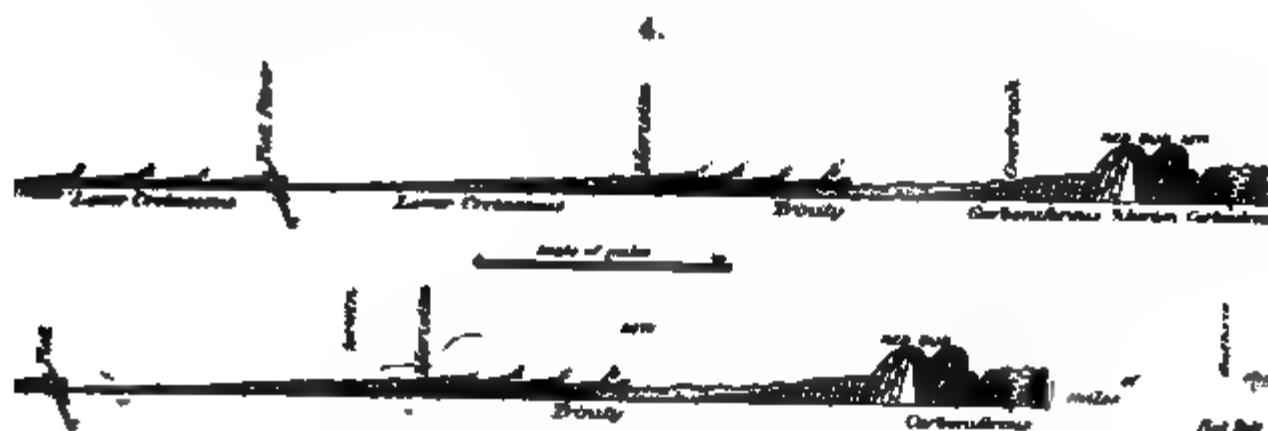
West of Duncan the limestone hills are buried beneath the alluvial beds for twenty miles, but again appear in the neighborhood of Fort Sill forming a low ridge north of and parallel to the Wichita Mountains, as is explained later.

The Arbuckle Mountains constitute a great and wonderful development of the Silurian system, although this has not been heretofore appreciated, and afford a superb example of folded structure. This folding is beautifully shown in the valley of the Washita which has cut a deep and tortuous water gap through these mountains where, unobscured by forest growth, the after fold of the stratified limestones and shales appears with startling boldness. Several journeys through this gap only increased the appreciation of the greatness of the task of roughly delineating the section, the complexity of which may be inferred from the accompanying figures.

Twenty miles south of the Arbuckle ridges proper, and separated from it by a valley based upon Carboniferous shales and sands, near the crossing of Hickory Creek and the Santa

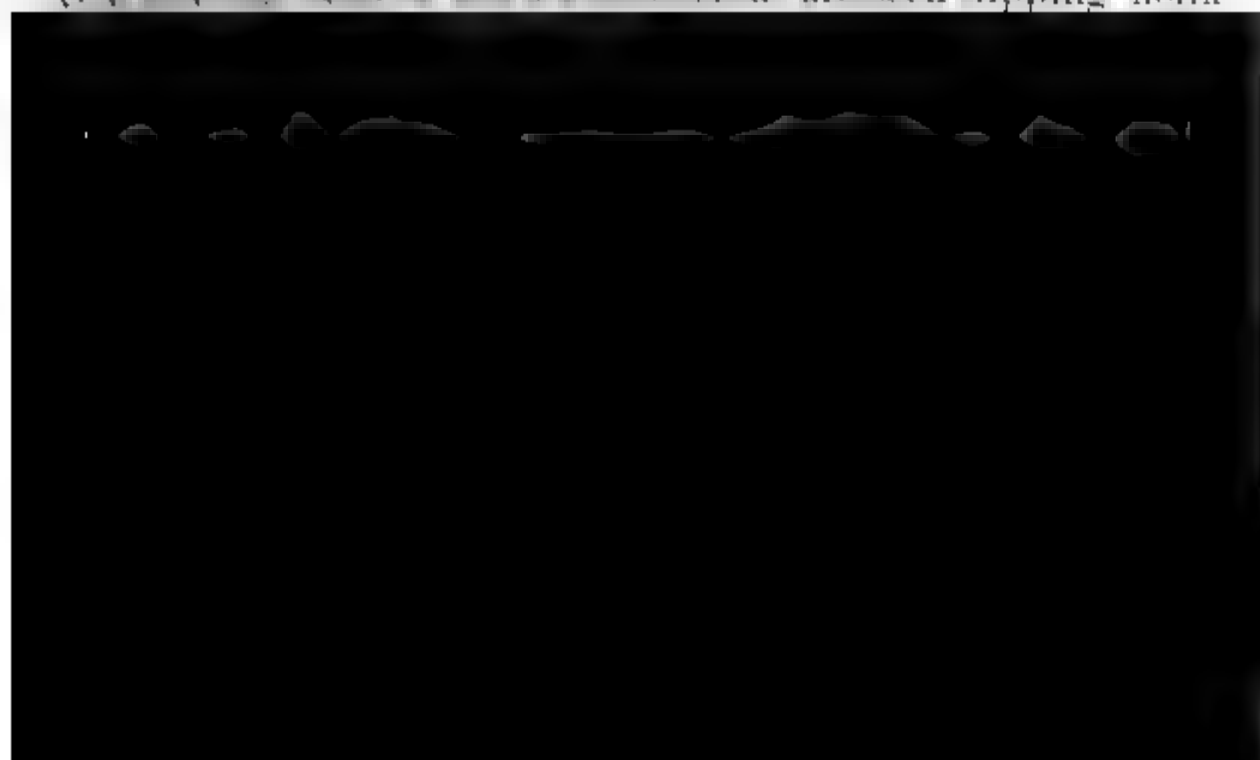
*The only previous mention of this important granite area of which I am aware was made by Dr. R. H. Loughridge in the 10th Census Report on Cotton Production.

Fe road is a smaller but similar and parallel ridge of folded Silurian rocks extending westward to Healdton (see map). For these mountains there is no local name, and I have called them Red Bird from an adjacent post-office. They serve to prove the great width of the folded belt.



Section across Indian Territory from south to north along Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway.

The accompanying north and south section and profile from Gainville, Texas, to Guthrie, Oklahoma, gives at least an idea of the sequence and foldings of the Arbuckle region. Proceeding southward along the line of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe, the typical gypsiferous red beds of Texas, Kansas, Indian Territory and New Mexico—the alleged Triassic*—are seen from Guthrie to Oklahoma City, lying in a disturbed, but comparatively sub-horizontal position, showing greater dips than the Cretaceous, but none of the complicated folding of the Paleozoic strata. South of the Canadian, the Carboniferous clays and sandstones appear with the excessive dips of the Ouachita folds. At Buckhorn Creek, east of Dougherty, the Carboniferous are seen dipping north



position for a distance of twelve miles. From north to south, however, the following distinct sub-divisions are apparent.

Their relation however is indefinite, owing to folds and faults:

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 1. Massive, hard blue limestones. Strata of 20 feet in thickness alternating with thin flaggy layers. Thickness (interrupted by a great fault) | feet. + 280 |
| 2. Massive limestones, but in thinner and more flaggy layers. Cherty | ± 100 |
| 3. Thin shaly argillaceous beds, fossiliferous, excessively folded and crumpled. Aggregate thickness including folds | + 360 |
| 4. A massive bed of pure white loosely cemented sandstone, similar to that seen above the Lower Helderberg near Woodford .. | 95 |
| 5. Thin flags and shales, mostly concealed but seen in contact with 6 at south side of river | ? |
| 6. A massive, yellow-blue limestone; finer grained than No. 1; rich in fossils (Trilobites, etc.) South bank of Washita at railroad bridge (Trenton) | + 140 |
| 7. Concealed interval. | |
| 8. Dark blue shales of great, but undetermined thickness. | |
| 9. Carboniferous shales and sandstone, Berwin to Overbrook. | |

Concerning the age of the pre Carboniferous rocks only a little can be said, but sufficient to confirm the impression that they include Trenton (No. 6), Niagara? (No. 1), Lower Helderberg, (No. 2). Could accurate collections be made, many other terranes would no doubt be shown to exist. The basis for these determinations are as follows. Near Woodford post office, ten miles west of the railroad, I collected from strata which are continuous with and apparently the same as No. 2, the following fossils, kindly determined by Professor H. S. Williams: *Spirifera lamellosa*, *Strophomena rugosa* (= *rhomboidalis*), *Rhynchonella nucleolata*, *Lingula?* *rectilatra*. Concerning these he says: "It is safe to say the horizon is Upper Silurian and probably equivalent to the Lower Helderberg of New York. It is above the Niagara, and this is an interesting feature." Concerning the fossils from No. 6, he says: "They are not very satisfactory but a *Trinucleus concentricus* shows No. 1092a to be of Lower Silurian, probably Trenton age." A fine specimen of *Lituites beckmani* Whitfield, in my possession, I have cause to believe came from this same locality, although I had previously been greatly deceived by its collector as to its locality and horizon.

It is not my desire to attempt any classification of these pre-Carboniferous rocks, but I believe from stratigraphic evidence that the shales at the south end of the gap may prove Devonian. Beneath the Trenton rocks there are exposed still older

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plain. Ten miles south of
the base of the Comanche series,
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Lower Cretaceous, which I shall
paper.*

section twenty miles west of
the presence of the Red beds and the
the latter having deflected south-

mountains of the Paleozoic areas, how-
vertical structure is seen, but much
the regions east of the Red beds are
twenty miles north from the Red Bird
contains the undulating prairies, void of
however, except slight rises where the sand-
upon the almost vertical Carboniferous
shown in our diagrams. The wonderful
this must have undergone exceeds all possi-
Yet, as I have shown in my Arkansas re-
of planed-off folds buried beneath the

These mountains rise abruptly above the level of the Red bed prairies, which surround them on every side, and their sharp jagged outlines present striking and exquisite scenery. The ragged peaks of igneous rock present a strong contrast to the stratified ridges of the eastern and central divisions of the system. Although in Arkansas the latter have a similar elevation above the surrounding plain, they have not the rugged peaks and points of the Wichitas, and are covered by forests. Their aspect is Appalachian—the arid Wichitas remind us of the Rockies. The eastern Ouachitas are the eroded remnants of stratified rocks with their characteristic topography, the Wichitas consist of igneous rocks—hard, firm, ragged and barren.

These mountains extend westward from Fort Sill 120 miles to the 100th meridian and were partially mapped out by Marcy and McClelland years ago,* and T. B. Comstock has recently made an interesting reconnoissance of them.† The most prominent of the many peaks are Mt. Scott and Mt. Sheridan; the former is 2400 feet above sea level, 1200 feet above Fort Sill on the plain below, and 1700 feet above Red River fifty miles distant. Though neither high nor extensive, the Wichitas are models of topography and mountain structure. Mt. Scott is a solid mass of red feldspathic granite with little quartz, while neighboring mountains are composed of greenstones, basalts, etc., indicating two widely different types of igneous rocks.

The westward continuation of these mountains is buried beneath the Tertiary sediments of the Staked Plains and with it the history of the relation of the Ouachita system to the Rocky Mountains. At one or two places in No Man's Land and north of Clarendon, Texas, I am told that erosion has cut down to the rocks of this mountain system but I have not been able to find the localities.

The composition of the Wichitas is unlike that of any mountain area of the southwest, and, so far as I could see, presents no structural resemblance either to the basin-surrounded mountains of the Trans-Pecos, or the early Paleozoic buttes and denuded folds of the central Texas region. Their age is not determined. They are certainly Post-Silurian and the Red beds have in part participated in the movements but the eruptives may be Post Cretaceous or even later. The apparent absence of the Lower and Upper Cretaceous in the composition of the Wichitas is especially noticeable. Their trend and composition plainly places them in the Ouachita system.

* See *Exploration of Red River of Louisiana*, Marcy.

† See *First (Second) Annual Report of the Texas State Geological Survey*. Austin, 1889.

Résumé of History recorded in the Ouachita System.

1. There are evidences of a Post-Silurian movement in the Buckhorn and Red Bird unconformities.

2. The great folding and elevation of the system were after the close of the Carboniferous period, probably during the Permian, as shown by the participation of the rocks of the former period in the movement, and Pre-Triassic, if the upper Red Beds are of that age.

3. A second or lateral movement must have taken place after this folding by which the folds were bent into S-shaped flexures. This movement preceded the Red Bed epoch.

4. The marked but not excessive disturbance of the Red Beds indicates movement and displacement after their deposition and previous to the Trinity epoch.

5. The Lower Cretaceous Comanche series—which may be partly Jurassic—was deposited against and not over these mountains, and show in themselves no folding or other disturbance except such faulting as may be attributed to the Post Upper Cretaceous continental movement.

6. The Upper Cretaceous, the Marine Eocene and the Quaternary along the southeastern and eastern border of the system in Arkansas were also deposited against and not entirely over the system, and, like the Comanche series, reveal no participation in adjacent mountain folding, but merely alternations of subsidence and elevation.

7. This system has undergone extensive erosions throughout Post-Carboniferous time, and its sediments have contributed to all later deposits.

8. The western portion of the mountain system was in parts submerged during the Red Bed epoch [Triassic?] and completely degraded or buried beneath the sediments of the great Tertiary lake which constitutes the formation of the Llano Estacado.

ART. XII.—*The Continuity of Solid and Liquid* ;* by
CARL BARUS.*Introductory.*

1. MY earlier papers† entered somewhat minutely into the volume thermodynamics of fluid matter. The behavior of matter passing from liquid to solid and back again was only incidentally‡ considered. This feature, however, is the very one which gives character, or at least a more easily interpretable character, to the whole of the volume phenomena of the substance; and it was therefore reserved for special research.

The problem may be looked at from another point of view: Let it be required to find the relation of melting point to pressure. My results have long since shown§ that in a comprehensive study of this question the crude optical and other methods hitherto used as criteria of fusion (criteria which have no inherent relation to the phenomenon to be observed) must be discarded. In their stead the striking volume changes which nearly always accompany change of physical state, in a definitely constituted simple substance, are to be employed.

The literature|| of the subject I will omit here, since the more important work has entered the text-books and since I shall probably have occasion to refer to it elsewhere.

The present experiments were made with naphthalene only. They are no means even near the degree of precision of which the applied plan of research admits. Thus far my chief object has been to carry the method quite through to an issue, preliminarily, and to test it at every point. The data are sufficient, however, to show that the procedure adopted, though I approached it with diffidence, can be brought under control throughout; and that the attainable accuracy need only be limited by the patience, skill and discernment of the observer. I was in some degree surprised, therefore, to find that my method led to new results at the outset.

2. *Earlier allied experiments.*—In applying the principle of § 1, I first made direct volume measurements with substances enclosed in capillary tubes of glass. In the case of naphtha-

* Geological interpretations are in the hands of Mr. Clarence King, by whom the work, as a whole, was suggested

† This Journal, III, xxxviii, p. 407, 1889; xxxix, p. 478, 1890; xl, p. 219, 1890; xli, p. 110, 1891. Phil. Mag., V, xxx, p. 338, 1890.

‡ This Journal, xxxviii, p. 408, 1889; xxxix, pp. 490, 491, 494, 1890.

§ This Journal, l. c. More pointedly with an indication of methods in Phil. Mag., V, xxxi, p. 14, 1891.

|| I will merely mention Sir William Thomson (1850), Bunsen (1850), Hopkins (1854), Mousson (1858), Poynting (1881), Peddie (1884), Amagat (1887), Battelli (1887) and some others. Cf. §§ 29, 30.

lene and some others, I thus obtained satisfactory results.* Such work is, however, limited to relatively low pressures (600 to 800 atm.); it does not admit of sufficient correction for the volume changes of the glass, and from the small quantity of substance examined, and the relatively frequent occurrence of *nuclear* condensation, volume lags are often obscured. Hence the definition which I was inclined to adopt after making these experiments, viz: that a pressure which when acting isothermally for an infinite time will just solidify the liquid and will just liquify the solid, stands to the given temperature in the relation of melting point and pressure, is not in accordance with facts.†

In a second method‡ I endeavored to ascertain the positions of the characteristic specific volumes by passing current out of the mercury index through the hot walls of the thin glass tube which contained contiguous columns of both the substance and the mercury. Supposing the tube surrounded by a liquid conductor transmitting pressure, the changes of resistance of the arrangement indicate the motion of the index and hence the degree of compression produced. Here, however, a new and unexpected annoyance was encountered, inasmuch as both the medium of oil contained in the piezometer and the glass possess seriously large pressure coefficients.§ Moreover it is only with great difficulty that the perfect insulation of an apparatus, in which water jackets form an essential part, can be maintained. I therefore abandoned the work.

In a third method similar to the preceding, I expressed the motion of the mercury thread or index in terms of the resistance of a very fine platinum wire, passing through the axis of the tube. Successive intercepts thus indicated the changes of

original meniscus, and therefore impracticable both to arrive at the volume behavior of the solid and to rigorously coördinate successive series of experiments.

3. *Advantages of the method of this paper.*—Hence I endeavored to modify Kopp's* specific volume flask, in a way to make it available under any temperature or pressure. Here the readings are independent of the unbroken character of the meniscus immediately in contact with the solidifying substance, whereas on the other hand (as I shall presently show), the volume measurements can be made electrically,† with almost every desirable degree of accuracy. Furthermore by charging the flask with suitably apportioned quantities of substance and of mercury, the error due to the compressibility of the glass may be eliminated in any degree whatever, and an apparatus be obtained which is practically rigid in relation to pressure. The data show that from each single series of experiments I thus obtain the isothermals and isopiestic and therefore also the isometrics, both for the liquid and for the solid state, admitting the latter to be less accurate; further, the relation of solidification and of fusion to pressure, and finally, the pressure changes of the isothermal specific volumes of solid and liquid, at solidifying and melting points. From such results the character of fusion, and the probable positions of critical, § 26, and of transitional points, § 28, can already be pretty well predicted. It is then only necessary to examine a number of substances, normally existing under widely different conditions of thermal state,‡ in order to broaden the evidence and possibly to reach results of a uniform bearing on matter in general. Thus I endeavor to avail myself of the enormous internal pressure through incremental pressures applied externally.

Apparatus.

4. *Temperature.*—Inasmuch as pressure varies at a mean rate of over 30 atm. per degree of melting point, so that temperature is as it were the coarse adjustment and pressure, the fine adjustment for the conditions of fusion, the method of experiment should be such that temperature may be kept rigorously constant while pressure is varied at pleasure. To obtain constant temperature, I constructed a series of brazed

* Kopp: Ann. Chem. u. Pharm., xciii, p. 129, 1855. The results of this fine memoir are too rarely quoted.

† The absolute expansion and compressibility of mercury being now known. § 7.

‡ "Instead of tracing the isothermals of a single substance throughout enormous ranges of pressure, similarly comparable results may possibly be obtained by examining different substances conceived to exist in widely different thermal states." This Journal, l. c., xxxix, p. 510.

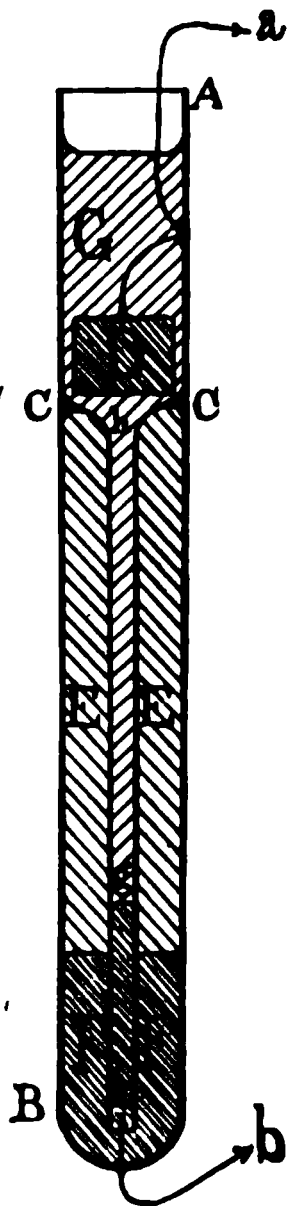
vapor baths of thin sheet iron, thickly jacketed with asbestos. They were cylindrical in form, 20^{cm} high and 10^{cm} in diameter. Axial tubulures, the upper of which projected outward, the lower both inward and outward, allowed the vertical tubular piezometer to pass axially through the vapor baths, and suitable stuffing boxes obviated leakage. Again the upward projection of the lower tubulure (both of which fit the piezometer snugly), formed an annular trough with the walls of the vapor bath, in which a sufficient quantity of the ebullition liquid could be placed, and boiled, by aid of the flat spiral burner below. The top of the vapor bath was provided with two other (lateral) tubulures, one of which served for the permanent attachment of a vertical condenser, and the other for the introduction of a suitable thermometer or thermocouple. Here also the quantity of ebullition liquid present, could at any time be tested, its amount increased or diminished, and its quality directly purified by fractional distillation or otherwise (an operation necessary, for instance, when amyl alcohol is used). §20. With a good condenser, the boiling may be kept up indefinitely, for the condensed vapor falls back into the trough below. At temperatures below 100°, it is expedient to avail oneself of the high latent heat of water* and to boil this liquid under diminished pressure. Temporarily attaching Professor R. H. Richards' jet pump to the end of the condenser, pressure may be reduced at pleasure, and any boiling point between 50° and 100° reached and maintained indefinitely. For higher temperatures toluol, amyl alcohol, turpentine, naphthalene, benzoic acid, diphenylamine, phenanthren, sulphur, etc., subserve similar purposes more or less thoroughly.

Temperature was measured by a Baudin thermometer of

For pressure measurement I am now able to avail myself of superb Amagat "manomètre à pistons libres," which can be attached to my compressor without further mechanism and with advantage.* The instrument is adapted to measure 3000 atm.

6. *The volume tube.*—This is shown in the annexed figure (diagram). It consists of an external cylindrical envelope AB of glass, closed below, open above, about 26^{cm} long and .4^{cm} or .5^{cm} in diameter. Throughout the greater part of its length, the tube is divided into two coaxial cylindric compartments, by a central glass partition tube CkC , open at both ends, and fused to the tube AB along the ring CC , about 7^{cm} from the top. CkC is about 17^{cm} long and .13^{cm} in internal diameter, drawn as thin-walled and even in calibre as possible, so that the greater part of its lower length may be available for measurement.

The substance to be examined is introduced into the annular space EE , care being taken that when fused under the highest temperature and lowest pressure to be applied, its lower boundary may be 4^{cm} or more above the end k . Immediately in contact with EE and extending upward into the central tube is a plug of mercury FF , with its free meniscus at g . When EE is solid, g must be (say) 2^{cm} above the end k , and when EE is liquid g must even in the extreme case be at about an equal distance below the end CC of the tube CkC . The remainder of this tube, above g , is quite filled with a concentrated solution of zinc sulphates Ghg , into which an amalgamated zinc terminal D , has been submerged and fixed in position by the platinum wire a , fused to the sides of the tube AB as shown. The other terminal b passing through the sealed bottom of AB , is in metallic connection with the mercury FF therein contained.



The tube thus adjusted is completely submerged in the oil within the insulated tubular piezometer, with which the terminal a connects. The terminal b completely insulated from the piezometer by a coating of glass tube, is in metallic connection with the barrel. Thus the tube AB is held in position by tensely stretching the fixed wires a and b , and so adjusting their lengths that the parts EE and hg with reference to which the measurements are made, may lie wholly within the vapor

* Results thus obtained in comparing various high pressure gauges and methods of manipulation will be given in a current number of the Phil. Mag., xxxi, p. 400, 1891.

reservoir of the cylindrical vapor bath surrounding the piezometer. Many of these operations are delicate, but descriptions must be omitted.

An inspection of the figure shows at once that if a current enter the outside of the barrel, it will pass through b , k , h , D and a , into the outside of the piezometer, and thence back to the battery. The only relatively significant resistance encountered in such a course, can be confined to the path between g and h , through the thread of the zinc sulphate solution; but this resistance, *cæt. par.*, varies directly with the length of gh and therefore proportionally to the volume contraction of the substance EE' . If Kohlrausch's method* of intermittent currents, bridge and telephone be used for the resistance measurement of the electrolyte, solidification or fusion of EE' breaks upon the ear with a loud roar, whereas the ordinary volume changes (solid or liquid) are indicated by intensifications of the sound in the telephone, sufficiently pronounced however to subserve the purposes of measurement.

It is seen that any breakage of the surface of separation between EE' and FF' is entirely without influence on these results, and that even in case of solidification of EE' , when the mercury is forced into the interstices left after contraction, the compressibility of EE' will still be measurable.

The charging of the tube free from air, is an operation which I have not yet accomplished satisfactorily. If a volatile substance like naphthalene be filled into EE' and fused in vacuo, vapors objectionably condense in the tube hk . If EE' be not fused, I doubt whether the air can be eliminated in vacuo. Hence in the present work, the substance was not air-free, a condition to which I give less attention because I do



: (1) The volume of the charge at a fiducial temperature and pressure; (2) The volume of the plug of mercury under the same conditions; (3) The volume of the central tube kh per centimeter of length; (4) The resistance of the plug of zinc sulphate solution, per centimeter of length, under all the stated conditions of temperature and pressure.

From (3) and (4) there follows at once (5) the resistance of the plug of zinc sulphate per unit of volume, under any stated conditions of temperature and pressure. Thus it is necessary to investigate preliminarily (6) the isopiestic relation of resistance and temperature of the given concentrated solution of sulphate, and (7) the isothermal relation of resistance and temperature of the same solution. In other words one must know the isoelectrics of the measuring electrolyte. Furthermore it is necessary to find (8) the compressibility of glass in its relation to pressure and temperature and (9) the compressibility of mercury under the same conditions; and (10) the thermal expansion of the glass and (11) the thermal expansion of mercury under given conditions of pressure.

For the measurements (8) to (11) I have not thus far made any. They are here of small importance, seeing that the changes on which I operate are all characterized by relatively large volume changes. Such measurements, however, are feasible, since both the expansion constants and the compression constants of pure mercury (thanks to the recent work of Tait, Amagat* and Guillaume) are now thoroughly known, and it is also known that the thermal changes of the coefficients of glass are of no relative consequence,† even as far as

If therefore the tube AB , figure 1, be filled with mercury, replacing the substance EE' , the expansion and compression constants may be found by the method above stated, once for all. In the present paper I assumed the compressibility of my glass‡ to be .0000022, that of mercury,§ being .0039; moreover the coefficient of thermal expansion of the glass to be .000025, that of mercury¶ between 60° and 130° being .000182.

Volume of the charge.—Clearly the fiducial conditions to which the volumes are to be referred, are given by the (normal) melting point, under atmospheric pressure. By weighing the charge before and after charging, I found for the mass of naphthalene enclosed, .763g. In a special and duplicate set of pycnometer measurements, I furthermore found for the density of solid naphthalene at 82° , .724. Hence the volume of the

* E. H. Amagat: Ann. ch. et phys., VI, xxii, p. 95, 1891.

† Ibid., p. 136.

‡ Ibid., p. 125.

§ Ibid., p. 137.

¶ Adolt u. Boernstein's tables, 1883, p. 69.

¶ Ibid., p. 37.

charge at 82° is $\cdot 552 \text{ cm}^3$, which I took for the volume at the normal melting point (80°).

9. *Expansion and compressibility of envelopes.*—The plug of mercury weighed 7.74 g . Its volume was therefore $\cdot 571 \text{ cm}^3$, at 20° , and its mean volume between 60° and 130° (being between $\cdot 575$ and $\cdot 582$) sufficiently near $\cdot 58 \text{ cm}^3$.

Thus the volume of the glass tube containing both the charge of naphthalene and of mercury, was 1.13 cm^3 . Its expansion per degree centigrade $\cdot 000028 \text{ cm}^3$, while the expansion of the mercury in place was $\cdot 000105 \text{ cm}^3$, per degree, whence the apparent expansion $\cdot 00007 \text{ cm}^3$ per degree. Therefore if in place of the fiducial volume $\cdot 552 \text{ cm}^3$ (§ 8), the following volumes be substituted, viz:

| | | | |
|------------|---------------------------|-------------|---------------------------|
| 60° | $\cdot 5565 \text{ cm}^3$ | 100° | $\cdot 5535 \text{ cm}^3$ |
| 80° | $\cdot 5550$ | 120° | $\cdot 5519$ |
| 90° | $\cdot 5542$ | 130° | $\cdot 5311$ |

the tube may be treated as free from thermal expansion. Here at 80° , $\cdot 555$ appears instead of $\cdot 552$, to allow for the fiducial volume of the stem $k/6$ (fig. 1), as will be shown in § 17.

Again the compression of the 1.13 cm^3 of glass, and the $\cdot 58 \text{ cm}^3$, of mercury will be:

| | | | |
|--|-----|-----|----|
| 100 atm.; glass, $\cdot 00025 \text{ cm}^3$; mercury, $\cdot 00023 \text{ cm}^3$; difference, $\cdot 00002 \text{ cm}^3$ | | | |
| 500 | 124 | 113 | 11 |
| 1000 | 249 | 226 | 23 |
| 1500 | 373 | 339 | 34 |
| 2000 | 497 | 452 | 45 |

Thus the corrections which would individually be appreciable (affecting the increments say 3 per cent) are differentially negligible (.3 per cent) where they fall below the electrical pressure coefficient of the zinc sulphate solution §14, cf §3

ility when the thread is worked up and down many hundred times, particularly in view of the suddenness of solidification), the constants of reduction are not thereby necessarily vitiated, always supposing the number of such breaks to be small. The shifting of coördinates thus produced can be corrected by check-work at a given temperature.* Long continued passage of intermittent currents, charges the mercury with zinc, but solution of mercury can not become serious, since the column is being continually washed by the terminal *D*. Some advantage would be gained by using zinc sulphate in the strength (1.286, Kohlrausch) which corresponds to maximum conductivity.

11. *Calibration.*—The tube *hk*, figure 1, being of insufficiently uniform caliber, volume must be expressed as a function of length. This I did by weighing threads of mercury, whose length had been measured in successive parts of the tube, obtaining the results of the first two columns of table 1. The fiducial zero is here arbitrarily placed 2^{cm} below the ring *CC*.

Similarly the resistance of the filament of zinc sulphate *hg* must be expressed as a function of length, referred to the same fiducial zero, at some convenient atmospheric temperature. To do this, I drew a zinc wire down to a diameter slightly below the caliber of the tube. Opening the bottom of *AB*, and closing the top so as to hold the terminal *D* firmly in position, I inverted the tube and quite filled it with the solution. *AB* was then placed in a cold water bath, with the terminal *a* insulated, and the terminal *b* replaced by the zinc wire referred

TABLE 1.—*Volumes per unit of length. Electrical resistance per unit of length*
 $\theta=17.8^{\circ}$. *Volume per unit of resistance* $\theta=17.8^{\circ}$.

| Length. | Volume. | Length. | Resistance. | Resistance. | Volume. |
|------------|------------------------|------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|
| <i>cm.</i> | <i>cm.³</i> | <i>cm.</i> | <i>ohms.</i> | <i>ohms.</i> | <i>cm.³</i> |
| 3.00 | .0491 | — .06 | 2720 | 2800 | .0000 |
| 11.15 | .1609 | 2.13 | 5780 | 5530 | .0350 |
| 4.45 | .0715 | 4.75 | 10190 | 8850 | .0640 |
| 9.79 | .1430 | 7.96 | 16200 | 12530 | .0920 |
| 15.42 | .2145 | 12.06 | 24340 | 16270 | .1190 |
| 3.30 | .0538 | 1.38 | 4630 | 20250 | .1450 |
| 7.20 | .1076 | 3.43 | 7920 | 24250 | .1705 |
| 11.40 | .1614 | 6.18 | 12790 | 28500 | .1960 |
| 15.60 | .2152 | 9.00 | 18220 | | |
| 2.75 | .0470 | 11.49 | 23140 | | |
| 6.10 | .0940 | | | | |
| 9.65 | .1410 | | | | |
| 13.40 | .1880 | | | | |

* This I should have done after obtaining Table 9, §21; but the full details of manipulation could not all be foreseen at the outset.

to, and so adjusted that I could slide it up or down and fix it in any position at pleasure. Measuring the distance between the ring *CC'* and the free end of the wire, with Grunow's cathetometer, and measuring at the same time the resistance corresponding to this length, I obtained the data necessary for constructing resistance as a function of length, for the temperature of the bath. In this way the second and third columns of table 1 were found.

Combining the results of these four columns by graphic interpolation, I obtained the fifth and sixth columns in which volume is expressed in terms of resistance, at the temperature $\theta = 17.8^\circ$ with regard to the fiducial mark in question.

12. *Electrolytic resistance and temperature.*—The investigation of this relation is a general problem, quite apart from the

TABLE 2.—*The relation of electrical resistance to temperature and pressure, in case of a concentrated solution of zinc sulphate.*

| Tempera- ture. | Pressure. | Resistance. | | Tempera- ture. | Pressure. | Resistance. | |
|-------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| $^\circ C.$ | atm. | ohms. | R/R_{100} | $^\circ C.$ | atm. | ohms. | R/R_{100} |
| 26.3 | 100 | 26960 | 6.060 | 99.6 | 191 | 1937 | .990 |
| 6.5 | 100 | 26960 | 6.060 | 99.6 | 186 | 1242 | .994 |
| 66.8 | 140 | 6178 | 1.368 | 99.6 | 471 | 1222 | .978 |
| 67.3 | 140 | 6120 | 1.376 | 99.6 | 448 | 1210 | .968 |
| 68.0 | 140 | 6050 | 1.360 | 99.6 | 1011 | 1198 | .968 |
| 67.8 | 140 | 6060 | 1.362 | 99.6 | 981 | 1203 | .962 |
| 67.8 | 140 | 6075 | 1.365 | 99.6 | 503 | 1232 | .986 |
| 67.8 | 140 | 6075 | 1.365 | 99.6 | 507 | 1232 | .986 |
| 67.7 | 140 | 6075 | 1.365 | 99.6 | 126 | 1262 | 1.010 |
| 100.0 | 137 | 4550 | 1.023 | 126.0 | 157 | 1062 | .850 |
| 100.0 | 137 | 4540 | 1.020 | 126.0 | 167 | 1062 | .850 |
| 100.0 | 479 | 4470 | 1.005 | 127.8 | 149 | 1058 | .846 |
| 100.0 | 469 | 4480 | 1.007 | 127.8 | 149 | 1058 | .846 |
| 100.0 | 1019 | 4370 | .982 | 127.8 | 149 | 1058 | .846 |

special apparatus used. Nevertheless I made two sets of measurements, in the first of which I determined the resistance of the thread hk , fig. 1, between fixed terminals of zinc, when the whole apparatus was kept at successive constant temperatures, and under pressures sufficient to insure the condensation of all polarization gases and the presence of a continuous liquid thread of zinc sulphate solution. The four columned table 2 contains these results, where R/R_{100} is the relative resistance at any stated temperature in terms of the corresponding datum for 100° C. At 100° moreover pressures are varied for the measurement of the pressure coefficients discussed in the next paragraph.

In the second and third parts of the table, the above tube B was replaced by a plain straight tube. Resistances are much smaller here, but the column R/R_{100} makes all the data comparable.

If the values R/R_{100} be compared graphically, as a function of temperature for nearly the same pressures, the results of all the series in table 2 are in good accord. Moreover the results for the large interval 6° to 160° , lie on a curve whose form closely resembles an hyperbola. From this point of view the data are remarkably interesting: for if it be true, then a suitable inversion of the locus indicates that the electric conductivity of the electrolyte varies linearly with temperature. Such a result would not only possess theoretic interest, but would make measurements of the kind necessary in the present paper feasible with a high degree of certainty. The interpolations of this paper were made empirically however, and I must withhold further opinion until I can trace the locus as far as 100° . I may add that inasmuch as a solution of maximum conductivity is accompanied by a smaller temperature coefficient, advantages of such a solution are suggested, §10.

13. *Volume in terms of resistance.*—With the data of §§11 and 12 in hand, it is now possible to express the volume of the capillary tube hk , figure 1, in terms of the resistance of the thread of electrolyte, observed at any temperature. With this object in view, I computed tables for each of the temperatures of the isothermals below, §§15 to 21, facilitating the further reduction by graphic methods. Being merely of passing interest the tables are omitted here.

14. *Pressure coefficient of the electrolyte.*—The results in table 2 for variable pressure and constant temperature are summarized in the small table 4, below. Here θ denotes the temperature, R the resistance of the thread, and $k = \partial R/R : \partial p$ where p symbolizes pressure, the pressure coefficient sought, holds at 0° C.

TABLE 4.—*Pressure coefficients of concentrated zinc sulphate solution.*

| θ | Pressure. | $k \times 10^4$ | θ | Pressure. | $k \times 10^4$ | θ | Pressure. | $k \times 10^4$ |
|----------|-----------|-----------------|----------|-----------|-----------------|----------|-----------|-----------------|
| 7° | 119 } | -43 | 100° | 157 } | -64 | 100° | 137 } | -43 |
| | 479 } | | | 482 } | | | 1007 } | |
| | 119 } | -35 | | 157 } | -49 | | 474 } | -33 |
| | 868 } | | | 996 } | | | 1475 } | |

The mean value is $k = -45/10^4$, being negative, inasmuch as the resistance is here decreased by pressure. The pressure coefficient is nearly independent of temperature, and decreases somewhat with pressure. The results, however, are not quite consistent, and a detailed construction of the data in table 2 shows a difference of march in the pressure on and the pressure off movements. I have yet to learn whether this be due to insufficiently fixed terminals, or to polarization, as well as to find the conditions (change of concentration or of the solution) under which the pressure coefficient may be a minimum. As the results stand the mean value is probably within 20 per cent of the truth, and hence in the extreme case of 2000 atm., the uncertainty of the pressure coefficient will not affect the volume increments more than 2 per cent.

In an earlier paper,* I found $k = -50/10^4$ between 0 and 150 atm., agreeing substantially with table 4. I then called attention to the strikingly close proximity of this datum to the corresponding coefficient for mercury $k = -30/10^4$. The pressure coefficient is of considerable interest, inasmuch as it indicates a certain relation between elasticity and the chemical equilibrium of the solid or liquid operated on† specially for zinc sulphate it may be noted that whereas the conductivity

, after which R can be expressed as a volume increment, referred as yet to an arbitrary fiducial zero, §§ 13, 14. The corresponding volume (last column of the tables) is deduced from this by inserting the initial volume values of §9. Cf. §17. No data are usually given for each step of pressure, the second of which, obtained after long waiting (5^m or more) is nearly isothermal than the first. In most cases, a small additional volume decrement takes place after solidification, either viscously or as the results of gradual decrease of temperature.

Paraphrases occur to show that for the data enclosed the measurement was made along an (upper) part of the tube hk , No. 1, whose calibre was not sufficiently uniform. Without making the full expansions at the higher temperatures and pressures, it is a priori impossible so to fill the tube that measurements fall within calibrated parts, and all other precaution conditions are complied with, §9. These approximations however refer to the liquid state, and are thus of less consequence in this paper, §1. If the isothermals of the liquid were sought, it would be advisable to make the tube hk much more nearly capillary from the outset.

These experiments were made on different days, and together extended over more than a week. This is too long a time to leave the tube without special readjustment, and some shift of coördinates may therefore have occurred. §§10, 25, 26. May add finally that the melting point of naphthalene is about 80°, its solidification point below this, under proper conditions. The density of the solid is 1.14, and that of the liquid at 82°, is .724, §8. Hence naphthalene melted in water and swims, according as its temperature is sufficiently below or above 80°.

Solid isothermal, 63°.—Clearly the data obtained in working on the solid will be less accurate than the liquid

5.—*Isothermals of (solid) naphthalene, at 63.5°, referred to .55 cm.³, at the normal melting point.*

| Pressure. | R . | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. | Time. | Pressure. | R . | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. |
|-------------|--------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-----------|-------------|--------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>atm.</i> | <i>ohms.</i> | | <i>cm.³</i> | <i>m.</i> | <i>atm.</i> | <i>ohms.</i> | | <i>cm.³</i> |
| 70 | 7600 | 3 | .4127 | 38 | 859 | 8240 | 39 | .3965 |
| 68 | 7430 | 3 | .4156 | 40 | 850 | 8120 | 38 | .3988 |
| 289 | 7760 | 13 | .4085 | 42 | 972 | 8310 | 44 | .3945 |
| 281 | 7630 | 13 | .4109 | 44 | 966 | 8310 | 44 | .3945 |
| 491 | 8160 | 22 | .4003 | 46 | 565 | 7600 | 25 | .4097 |
| 481 | 8010 | 22 | .4027 | 49 | 565 | 7605 | 25 | .4097 |
| 675 | 8050 | 30 | .4010 | 51 | 100 | 7270 | 4 | .4183 |
| 662 | 7880 | 30 | .4039 | 67 | 65 | 7340 | 3 | .4173 |

data, §6. For in addition to relatively greater importance of the corrections for the compressibility of the envelopes, the fissured or honeycombed structure and the high resistances, §10, interfere with sharp measurement. Nevertheless by comparing the data with similar solid isothermals obtained at much higher temperatures, their validity may be inferred.

With reference to the series it is interesting to note that recoil of volume (pressure decreasing) is more rapid than compression. The reverse of this would have been anticipated, supposing that mercury lodged in the interstices. The liquid in the above case was allowed to solidify under pressure.

TABLE 6.—*Isothermals of naphthalene, at 83°, referred to .55 cm.³ at the normal melting point*

| Time. | Pressure | R | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. | Time. | Pressure. | R. | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. |
|-------|----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|-------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|
| m. | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ | m. | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ |
| 36 | 39 | 923 | 2 | 5498 | 79 | 129 | 5250 | 6 | 424 |
| 39 | 226 | 1183 | 10 | 5371 | 81 | 89 | 4747 | 4 | 4358 |
| 44 | 221 | 1158 | 10 | 5382 | 87 | 93 | 4348 | 4 | 4453 |
| 46 | 250 | 1223 | 11 | 5355 | 94 | 93 | 4348 | 4 | 4453 |
| 61 | 244 | 1198 | 11 | 5365 | 96 | 70 | 3651 | 3 | 4630 |
| 53 | 267 | 1232 | 12 | 5348 | 97 | 70 | 3256 | 3 | 4732 |
| 59 | 265 | 1227 | 12 | 5351 | 104 | 74 | 2031 | 3 | 5062 |
| 60 | 303 | 1288 | 13 | 5322 | 116 | 76 | 1695 | 3 | 5172 |
| 63 | 322 | 1328 | 14 | 5306 | 120 | 75 | 1480 | 3 | 5250 |
| 64 | 317 | 5667 | 14 | 4138 | 122 | 49 | 920 | 2 | 5500 |
| 73 | 299 | 5712 | 13 | 4128 | 127 | 62 | 905 | 2 | 5508 |
| 75 | 127 | 5250 | 6 | 4241 | | | | | |

TABLE 7.—*Isothermals of naphthalene, at 90°, referred to .55 cm.³ at the normal melting point*

| Time. | Pressure | R | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. | Time. | Pressure. | R. | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. |
|-------|----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|-------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|
| m. | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ | m. | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ |
| 36 | 39 | 923 | 2 | 5498 | 79 | 129 | 5250 | 6 | 424 |
| 39 | 226 | 1183 | 10 | 5371 | 81 | 89 | 4747 | 4 | 4358 |
| 44 | 221 | 1158 | 10 | 5382 | 87 | 93 | 4348 | 4 | 4453 |
| 46 | 250 | 1223 | 11 | 5355 | 94 | 93 | 4348 | 4 | 4453 |
| 61 | 244 | 1198 | 11 | 5365 | 96 | 70 | 3651 | 3 | 4630 |
| 53 | 267 | 1232 | 12 | 5348 | 97 | 70 | 3256 | 3 | 4732 |
| 59 | 265 | 1227 | 12 | 5351 | 104 | 74 | 2031 | 3 | 5062 |
| 60 | 303 | 1288 | 13 | 5322 | 116 | 76 | 1695 | 3 | 5172 |
| 63 | 322 | 1328 | 14 | 5306 | 120 | 75 | 1480 | 3 | 5250 |
| 64 | 317 | 5667 | 14 | 4138 | 122 | 49 | 920 | 2 | 5500 |
| 73 | 299 | 5712 | 13 | 4128 | 127 | 62 | 905 | 2 | 5508 |
| 75 | 127 | 5250 | 6 | 4241 | | | | | |

ial zero of the stem *hk*, figure 1. For at pressure zero increment is .0024 cm.³. Hence the value .5524 of § 8, ased by .0024 is the fiducial volume (.555 cm.³ nearly) to be used, and from this the others are derived. § 9.

. *Liquid-solid isothermals at 90°*.—Two independent s of results are in hand. The example given in table 7 e second in number.

. *Liquid-solid isothermals at 100°*.—Four independent s are in hand. The example given in table 8 is the second mber.

8.—*Isothermals of naphthalene, at 100°, referred to .55 cm.³ at the normal melting point.*

| Pressure. | R. | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. | Time. | Pressure. | R. | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. |
|-----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|-------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|
| atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ | m. | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ |
| 116 | 667 | 5 | (.5575) | 148 | 906 | 4882 | 41 | .4124 |
| 116 | 667 | 5 | (.5575) | 150 | 769 | 4714 | 35 | .4175 |
| 281 | 852 | 13 | .5455 | 157 | 772 | 4714 | 35 | .4175 |
| 274 | 835 | 12 | .5464 | 159 | 644 | 4556 | 29 | .4224 |
| 460 | 1020 | 21 | .5360 | 165 | 652 | 4556 | 29 | .4224 |
| 670 | 1223 | 30 | .5255 | 167 | 560 | 3808 | 25 | .4425 |
| 653 | 1198 | 29 | .5266 | 168 | 560 | 3202 | 25 | .4599 |
| 795 | 1331 | 35 | .5204 | 169 | 562 | 2846 | 25 | .4707 |
| 766 | 1300 | 34 | .5219 | 171 | 558 | 2279 | 25 | .4877 |
| 808 | 1353 | 36 | .5195 | 173 | 558 | 1889 | 25 | .5000 |
| 797 | 1353 | 36 | .5195 | 176 | 558 | 1600 | 25 | .5102 |
| 780 | 1336 | 35 | .5202 | 178 | 558 | 1416 | 25 | .5175 |
| 818 | 1370 | 37 | .5185 | 180 | 557 | 1300 | 25 | .5224 |
| 813 | 1370 | 36 | .5187 | 184 | 552 | 1174 | 25 | .5280 |
| 785 | 1336 | 35 | .5202 | 187 | 553 | 1160 | 25 | .5287 |
| 856 | 1415 | 39 | .5167 | 208 | 553 | 1158 | 25 | .5288 |
| 850 | 1410 | 38 | .5169 | 213 | 546 | 1160 | 25 | .5287 |
| 820 | 1370 | 37 | .5185 | 216 | 429 | 988 | 19 | .5375 |
| 908 | 1439 | 41 | .5155 | 225 | 430 | 992 | 19 | .5375 |
| 888 | 1439 | 40 | .5155 | 227 | 287 | 845 | 13 | .5459 |
| 890 | 1439 | 40 | .5155 | 235 | 292 | 852 | 13 | .5454 |
| 921 | 4814 | 41 | .4141 | 237 | 81 | 645 | 4 | (.5585) |
| 914 | 4882 | 41 | .4125 | 244 | 86 | 650 | 4 | (.5583) |

. *Liquid-solid isothermals at 117°*.—The vapor bath in case was filled with amyl alcohol from which the water not been extracted. § 4. The results for solidification ined are worthless, except in so far as they contain specific ence of certain peculiarities of behavior of an unevenly eratured tube, referred to below. §§ 25, 27. The data usion are in part available. I omit the table.

. *Liquid-solid isothermals at 130°*.—Four independent s of results are in hand. The example given in table 9 is econd in number.

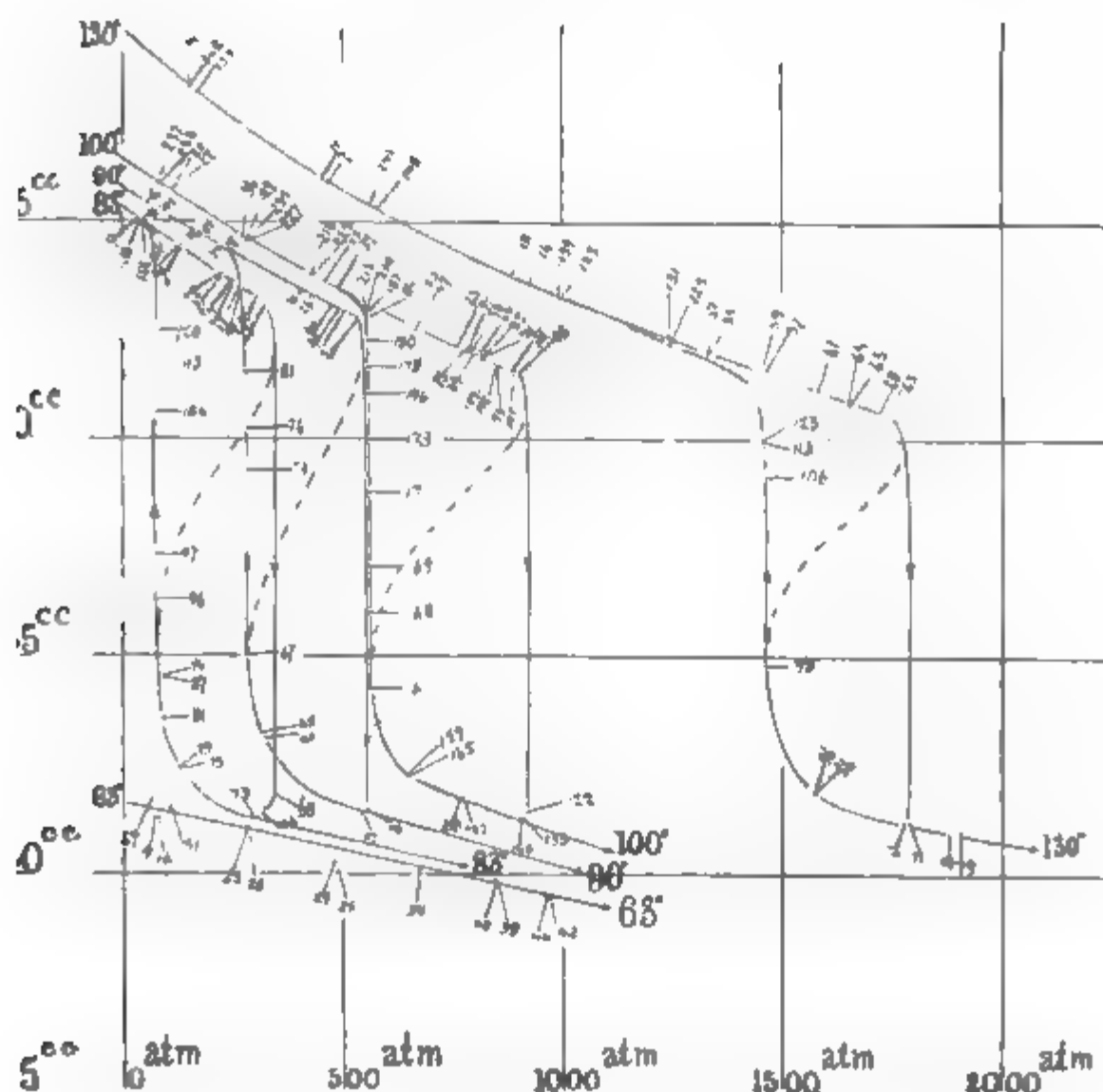
TABLE 9.—*Isothermals of naphthalene, at 130°, referred to .55 cm.³ at the normal melting point.*

| Time. | Pressure. | R. | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. | Time. | Pressure. | R. | $\frac{kp}{\times 10^3}$ | Volume. |
|-------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|-------|-----------|-------|--------------------------|------------------|
| m. | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ | m | atm. | ohms. | | cm. ³ |
| 5 | 151 | 276 | 7 | (.5811) | 78 | 1907 | 3926 | 85 | .4099 |
| 7 | 464 | 495 | 21 | (.5586) | 84 | 1880 | 3950 | 85 | .4091 |
| 11 | 451 | 484 | 20 | (.5601) | 86 | 1574 | 3695 | 72 | .4190 |
| 14 | 921 | 908 | 41 | .5351 | 96 | 1676 | 3695 | 72 | .4190 |
| 18 | 881 | 770 | 40 | .5378 | 98 | 1444 | 2876 | 66 | .4480 |
| 35 | 1338 | 1057 | 52 | .5200 | 106 | 1463 | 1690 | 65 | .4914 |
| 37 | 1336 | 1057 | 59 | .5200 | 113 | 1458 | 1481 | 65 | .5000 |
| 57 | 1464 | 1132 | 65 | .5158 | 123 | 1456 | 1490 | 65 | .4996 |
| 59 | 1459 | 1132 | 65 | .5158 | 125 | 1245 | 1021 | 56 | .5220 |
| 61 | 1681 | 1223 | 74 | .5109 | 131 | 1244 | 1021 | 56 | .5321 |
| 63 | 1656 | 1278 | 74 | .5083 | 135 | 990 | 845 | 44 | .5327 |
| 64 | 1651 | 1262 | 74 | .5091 | 139 | 994 | 850 | 44 | .5325 |
| 65 | 1737 | 1329 | 78 | .5057 | 141 | 565 | 565 | 25 | (.5636) |
| 68 | 1723 | 1320 | 78 | .5061 | 145 | 580 | 570 | 26 | (.5531) |
| 71 | 1794 | 3878 | 81 | .4119 | 148 | 165 | 275 | 7 | (.5811) |
| 76 | 1777 | 3926 | 79 | .4106 | 153 | 168 | 289 | 7 | (.5796) |

Deductions.

22. *Graphic construction.*—To obtain a survey over this series of individual data, it will be necessary to resort to the pictorial method, and to represent volume as a function of pressure, under the successive conditions of constant temperature. This has been done in the following chart. The ordinates are volumes (fiducial volume being .5524 cm.³ at 80° nearly, and arbitrarily chosen), the abscissas are pressures. The temperatures of the isothermals are given at the beginning and the end of each curve; and the dates or times in minutes at which the individual observations were made, are

vidences of the thoroughly static character of these phenomena are abundant, I mention: solid isothermal 100° , first series (not given above), where I waited from 50^m to 100^m at a pressure below the solidifying point of the liquid, without obtaining fusion, whereas, after this fusion is completed between



1^m and 112^m with only slightly further reduction of pressure; liquid isothermal 100° , second series (given above § 19, and art § 22), where I waited from 47^m to 121^m at a pressure greater than that at which the solid fuses, without obtaining solidification, whereas this sets in at once between 121^m and 122^m , when the pressure interval is only slightly increased; solid isothermal 130° , second series, where I wait from 86^m to 121^m at a pressure below the solidifying point without change of volume or fusion whatever, etc. If high temperature conditions are unfavorable to volume lag, this evidence and much more which I might add, is accentuated.

I have already pointed out* that it is a phenomenon inherent in the passage from one molecular condition to another,

* This Journal, l. c., Phil. Mag. (V), xxxi, p. 27, 1891.

which lies at the root of all manifestations of hysteresis, whether observed electrically (Cohn, Ewing, Schumann), or magnetically (Warburg, Ewing), or as a purely mechanical result in my work,* during fusion, as above, during solution, § 29, etc.

24. *James Thomson's double inflections.*—Solidification almost always sets in at once. One would expect this: for if there be condensation or crystallization at any one point, it will form the nucleus from which the whole column will be solidified, so far as it lies in the field of volume lag. Only in one case (liquid isothermal $83^{\circ} 60^m$ to 63^m) did I obtain evidence of curvature. Usually even at low temperatures the path is precipitous, because pressure cannot be lowered rapidly enough.

The reverse of this holds in case of fusion. Here the initial or stable contours of James Thomson's circumflexures are well marked. It is true that fusion cannot take place instantaneously, because heat cannot be supplied fast enough. It is also true that if temperature be not quite identical throughout the length of column, fusion will first take place at the hotter planes below, and proceed thence to the top.† In the present experiments, however, the phenomenon occurs with the same uniformity at all temperatures, and is quite pronounced in the steam bath. § 4. Hence, taking into additional consideration the evidence of § 22, I conclude that the initial contours are static and regard them as partially evidencing James Thomson's‡ well known inference relative to the doubly inflected contours of the isothermal paths accompanying change of physical state. When fusion actually sets in, the phenomenon is no longer observable; for the physical parts of the substance now exist in widely different thermal states. In

points; but as these data are identical in purport with those of table 10, and since the melting volume is necessarily less easy of definition, § 23, I will omit them here.

TABLE 10.—*Volumes solid and liquid at the solidifying points, varying with pressure.**

| Series. | Temperature 83°. | | Temperature 90°. | | Temperature 100°. | | Temperature 130°. | |
|---------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | Pressure. Solid volume. | Pressure. Liquid volume. | Pressure. Solid volume. | Pressure. Liquid volume. | Pressure. Solid volume. | Pressure. Liquid volume. | Pressure. Solid volume. | Pressure. Liquid volume. |
| I } | 260 | 260 | 550 | 550 | 875 | 875 | 1720 | 1720 |
| | ·415 | ·534 | ·413 | ·523 | ·416 | ·510 | ·415 | ·505 |
| II } | 320 | 320 | 555 | 555 | 920 | 920 | 1790 | 1790 |
| | ·415 | ·530 | ·415 | ·527 | ·413 | ·515 | ·412 | ·505 |
| III } | 345 | 345 | 550 | 550 | 870 | 870 | 1665 | 1665 |
| | ---- | ---- | 418 | ---- | ·413 | ·510 | ·417 | ·507 |
| IV } | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | 900 | 900 | 1720 | 1720 |
| | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | ·412 | ·517 | ---- | ·505 |
| | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- |

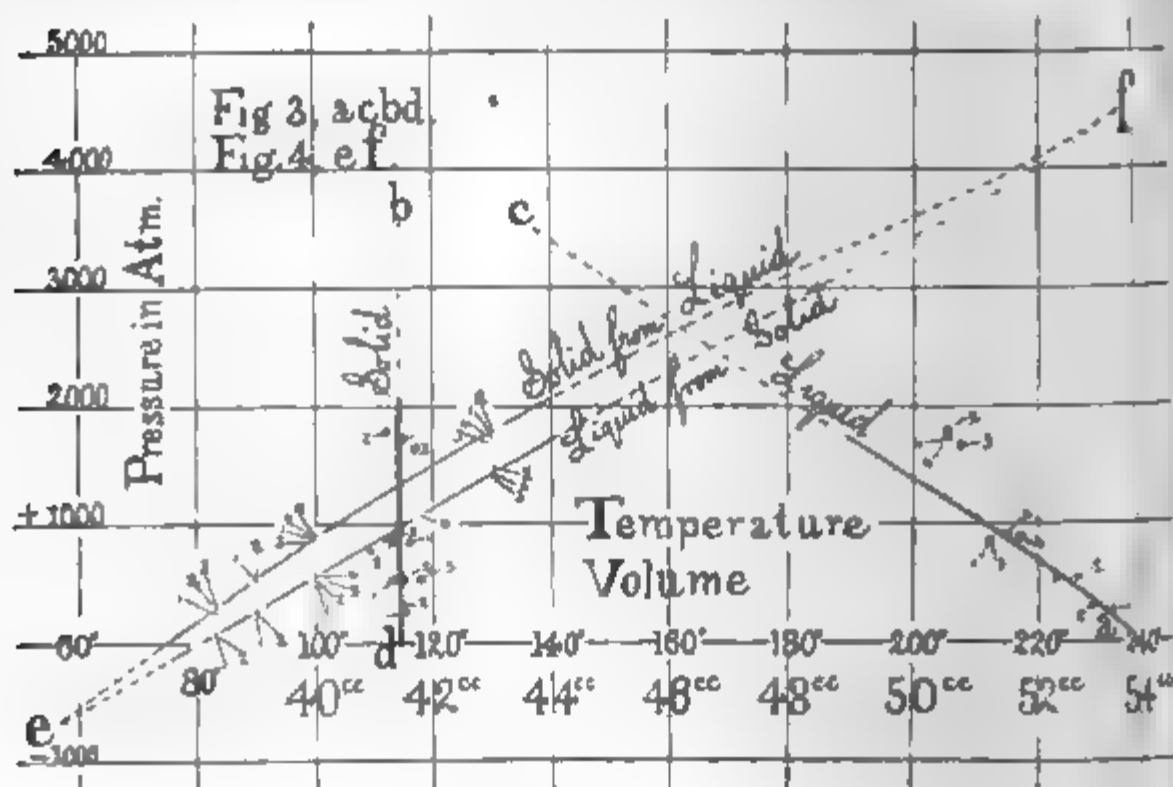
A noticeable feature of the diagram is the closer accordance of the three groups of points between 0 and 1000 atm., during which measurements steam was used as the medium of constant temperature, as compared with the single group of points between 1000 atm. and 2000 atm., when vapor of amyl alcohol was used. I account for this by supposing solidification in the last case to have been premature, and associate the result with insufficient constancy of the vapor bath. §§ 4, 20, 23. Hence, the liquid volumes found are too large. There may also have been some gradual change of the constants of the volume tube, which in the lapse of time became appreciable. §§ 15, 10. Further experiments must decide this point. Regarding solid volumes it is clear that no device can define them as closely as the liquid volumes; indeed the degree of definition attained is one of the virtues of the method. § 16.

In figure 3 I have therefore placed chief reliance on the water points (0 to 1000 atm.) and drawn the locus accordingly.

26. *Critical point.*—The area enclosed by the lines $ac \dots$, and $bd \dots$, supposing b and c eventually to coalesce, has the same signification as Andrews's area of vapor tensions. This would also be true of the similar figure for the characteristic volumes at the melting points, and more pointedly of the figure in which solidification volumes are taken at the solidifying points and fusion volumes at the melting points. § 25. All of these diagrams point out the probable occurrence of a *critical point in the region of positive pressure, reached in the direction of increasing temperature*, at which point solid would change to liquid and liquid to solid, without paroxysmal change

* See remarks on table 11, § 27.

of volume, and consequently without volume lag. In case of naphthalene the position of this point may be conjectured at several hundred degrees centigrade and several thousand (3,000 to 10,000) atmospheres.



27. *Solidifying points and melting points.*—The cycles depicted in figure 2 have two prominent characteristics: They gradually decrease in vertical extent from left to right and they gradually decrease in lateral extent from a central area toward both sides of the chart. The former quality has already been interpreted. § 25, 26. The latter is now to be considered.

Table 11 gives the values of the pressures corresponding to solidification and to fusion at the different temperatures, together with other relevant information, as sharply as these statements can be made. M. P. denotes melting point, S. P., solidifying point.

Let the solidifying points and melting points be constructed as functions of pressure. Figure 4 shows the points to lie on a spindle-shaped figure, running diagonally across the chart. They are again taken out of all the four sets of results and numbered accordingly. §25. The parts of the curves actually observed are given in full lines, the inferential prolongations in dotted lines.

From the nature of the case the solidification points are not properly determinable. §23. Even leaving the nuclear solidification induced by inconstancy in the linear distribution of temperature out of sight (a marked example of which occurs in the series for 117° , §20, where solidification and fusion are practically coincident), all percussion and jarring, too rapid increase of pressure, a vibratile wire running through the column as in some of my earlier experiments, will cause the whole labile structure to topple into solidification. Hence the solidifying points must be fairly *crept* upon and surprised, and hence my present results in which these precautions were taken show high solidifying points as compared with my other work. §2, note.

These conditions do not hold with like importance in case of fusion; for the melting points as a rule show much greater incidence.

In figure 4 I have therefore placed chief reliance on the data of series II obtained as they were with the experience of series I to guide me.

28. *Transitional point*.—If the two curves be prolonged in the direction of *increasing* temperature, their eventual coalescence is presumptive by §§25, 26. Clearly the occurrence of volume lag must cease when the paroxysmal volume changes vanish.

If the two curves be prolonged in the direction of *decreasing* temperature, then the data themselves indicate the probability of an intersection in the region of negative pressure. Beyond this, therefore, there would be an inversion of the conditions of fusion: in other words, the substance would solidify at a lower pressure than that at which it fuses, and fuse at a higher pressure than corresponds to solidification. I believe this remarkable suggestion to be interpretable as follows: The normal type of fusion changes continuously into the ice type of fusion, through a transitional type, characterized by the zero of volume change. The position of the latter for naphthalene, so far as can

now be discerned, may be placed at (say) 50° and (say) -1000 atm. It is noteworthy, that with the understanding here laid down, the normal type of fusion is reached from the ice type, in the direction of increasing temperature.*

29. *Solubility and pressure.*—In view of the detailed analogy which holds between many characters of fusion, and of solution, much that can be investigated for the simpler of these phenomena (fusion apparently) will be applicable to the other. A substance may be transferred from the solid into the liquid state either (1) by heating it, or (2) by dissolving it. In general, excess of temperature, or of solvent favor the diminution of viscosity here in question. A liquid on the verge of solidification or a concentrated solution is solidified or deposits solid on cooling; and in both cases the nice adjustment of labile molecular equilibrium is accompanied by volume hysteresis,—under-cooling, etc., in the one case, supersaturation, etc., in the other. Hence I conclude that if under proper thermal conditions pressure alone can solidify a liquid, it can also under proper solutional conditions induce crystallization or the deposit of solid from solution—thereby trenching upon, or (from a new point of departure) approaching the modern chemical doctrines which originated, I believe, with van't Hoff.

I am the more justified in drawing these inferences as in my last article† on the solvent action of hot water on glass, I have already adduced the necessary evidence. Since from one point of view, the isothermal compressibility of silicated water is increased proportionally to the time during which the solvent action has been going on; and from another, with the amount of basic silicate dissolved,—the deduction is closely at hand, that what pressure actually did in this instance, was a mere

Thus the work has a bearing on the nature of solution; for to my thinking, what I have ventured to call cohesive affinities* cannot differ except in degree from the affinities determining valency. At least proceeding on this assumption, I am led naturally to a theory regarding changes of the physical state of aggregation in general, which I will indicate elsewhere.

30. *Conclusion.*—In the above pages I have merely sought to describe the results directly given by experiment in so far as I understand them, and to draw conclusions which in the light of known facts seemed to be admissible or even obvious. In how far these conclusions are to stand or fall, will depend on similar investigations, to be made with a variety of other substances specially selected with reference to their position in a scale of thermal state. § 3. How such selection is to be made, I am now unable to intimate. Substances for instance which fuse continually, like glass or sealing wax, might at first sight be referred to positions near their critical temperatures: but I believe these cases are mere solution phenomena of relatively small interest. At all events at the outset, the experiments must deal with bodies of definite, simple and preferably crystalline character, to the exclusion of mixtures. I feel confident that in an examination of many types, some will be found lying relatively nearer the critical point, while others lie nearer or even beyond the transitional point; and that if the above method be applied with greater rigor than was done in the present paper, light will be thrown on the long neglected department of fusion and solution thermodynamics as related to pressure. From this stage of progress it will then be possible to approach nearer the next of the kindred phenomena, which I conceive to be nothing less than the kind of hysteresis or higher order of volume lag known as chemical affinity.

[*Added to proof.*—To obviate the occurrence of a bald statement like the last, I will indicate my views on the distribution, or successive orders of volume lags. These are to be sought—I, during the passage of a given atom into the next consecutive in a scale of decreasing atomic weights; II, during the occurrence of dissociation of the molecule, including solutions gas-fluid. They are demonstrable, III, in the region of Andrews's vapor tensions, including the Alexéef-Masson solutions liquid-liquid; IV, in the region of the solid-liquid phenomena of the present paper, including solutions solid-liquid; V, in the region of solid-solid phenomena categorically distinguishable as "permanent set" (Osmond, Carus-Wilson, Barus). They are to be sought for finally, VI, during the passage of a given atom into the next consecutive in a scale of increasing atomic weights.

The enumeration is systematic, and inasmuch as VI is virtually identical with I, the inherent nature of these changes is periodic. Hence under suitable thermal conditions, and continually increasing pressure, the evolution of atoms, of molecules, of changes of physical state, are successive stages of periodically recurring hysteresis.]

ing paper is at fault only in postulating an unnecessary change of hydration of the silicated water (l. c., p. 116).

It is gratifying to note that evidence of the similar solution behavior solid-solid is forthcoming, and to be found in the work of Osmond, of C. A. Carus-Wilson (Phil. Mag., xxix, p. 200), and of myself, as I have already pointed out (Phil. Mag., xxxi, pp. 26-28).]

* Ibid., p. 115.

ART. XIII.—*Note on the Asphaltum of Utah and Colorado;*
by GEORGE H. STONE.

DURING the past year the writer has visited all the known asphalt fields of western Colorado and northeastern Utah, save those situated within the reservations of the Ute Indians, and two other exceptions noted below. It is intended at some future time to complete a map of the asphalt exposures and to publish a more detailed account of them than is possible in this preliminary paper.

Petrography of the Deposits.—The following named classes of deposit are represented:

1. *Asphaltic sand-rock*, known also as sand-asphalt and bituminous rock. This is the most abundant of all the asphaltic deposits. It consists of a sandstone the grains of which are in contact with each other and the spaces between the grains are wholly or partly filled with asphaltum. The proportion of asphalt varies up to about 15 per cent by weight and 27 per cent by volume. Of course sandstones will contain different proportions of asphalt in their inter-granular spaces since those spaces depend on the sizes and shapes of the constituent grains and often on the presence of other cementing substances. When a bituminous sandstone contains more than about 15 per cent of asphalt, it may be assumed that it has not been under pressure of superincumbent rock sufficient to cause the grains to come in contact with each other.*

The thickest stratum of fully charged rock that I have seen was near 40 feet in thickness. Usually the strata of high grade

yield no paraffin, or at most a mere trace to solvents and boiling water, and a considerably larger proportion after destructive distillation. They approach cannel coal in composition, but contain a very large proportion of ash, so that none of them contain more than 10, or perhaps 20 per cent of carbonaceous matter. The richer layers are commonly known in western Colorado as "oil rock," and burn readily with a bright, furious flame, leaving pieces of shale having the same size and shape as they had before being burned. These facts indicate that in their natural state these bituminous shales (they all contain so much lime as to be more nearly marls than shales) are asphaltic rather than paraffinic rocks. The richer layers are seldom more than 4 feet thick and are found in the midst of low grade rocks (shales, marls, and limestones). At one place I noted ten of the rich layers each two to four feet thick, distributed at intervals through about 400 feet of rock.

3. *Bituminous Limestones.*—Limestones and marls constitute a large part of the Tertiary rocks of the region under discussion, i. e. of the asphalt-bearing formations. Almost all the limestones are somewhat bituminous, and some strata will burn like the shales. They are colored from gray to yellowish-brown, light color, rather than blackish like the bituminous shales. Usually they do not contain distinct fossils, but are often oolitic, pisolitic or coarser concretionary, i. e. they are semi-crystalline. Fetid layers are not rare, and some of them are particularly offensive. Cavities in the bituminous limestones are often filled with hard asphalt, in some places taking the form of Wurtzilite, in other places Uintaite. The color of the Uintaite varies from the deepest black to brown and even gray-brown. The lighter colors are found in the centers of the lumps or in the cavities less open to the air. I have found asphalt in five classes of cavities in these limestones.

1. In small irregular or somewhat amygdaloidal cavities in fine granular limestone and having no visible outlets.

2. In fractures that cross the strata for only a short distance (gash veins of the miners).

3. In deep fissures (true fissure veins).

4. In caves or channels of subterranean streams, in which the asphalt was brought in after the stalagmitic growths were completed or nearly so.

5. In the interior of shells, or in the cavities found in the centers of concretions and nodules contained in the limestone.

The limestone yields on destructive distillation several per cent of volatile and combustible carbonaceous matter. In all cases unless in the fissure veins and stream caves it is evident that the asphalt must have been derived from the country rock, i. e. a bituminous liquid oozed out of the limestone into the cavities. Since

the limestone is of a light color, this liquid must have acquired its dark color during the process of being changed into hard asphalt. This conclusion is confirmed by the lighter color of the least exposed asphalt. Evidently the bituminous matter that is now in the rock is not in the condition of ordinary black asphalt, but the liquid which oozed out of the rock was capable of being changed into such asphalt, hence the bituminous limestones may well be classed with the asphalt-producing rocks.

The rather light color of some of these masses of hard asphalt, which have all the properties of Uintaite except the deep black color, suggests the question whether the color of asphalt be not due to disseminated fixed carbon, in a state approaching charcoal, the product of partial oxidation, more than to the natural color of the hydro-carbons proper. I began some experiments and analyses to determine this point, but the work is incomplete.*

4. *Outflow or Overflow Asphalt.*—Under this class are here included all forms of asphalt that have oozed out of the rock that originally contained them. Some of these had the black color before, others have acquired it since the outflow. I leave it as an open question whether these oils were true asphalts before acquiring the black color.†

Mineralogically the outflow asphalts present the same difficulties of classification as do the petroleumms. There are perhaps a dozen different grades in Utah and Colorado that might be described as distinct minerals by those on the alert for new species. The more important generic terms (they are all generic rather than specific) are the following: 1. Maltha, asphaltic tar, brea, mineral tar or pittasphalt. Here are in-

dened outflow is known as outflow or overflow asphalt. maltha is found in small pools, or spread over the ground often penetrates the spaces between the broken rock of the surface or sub-soil in a complex network of stringers, small veins and sheets. 2. Uintaite or Gilsonite. A brittle, easily soluble fusible mineral. 3. Wurtzilite, a shining, tough mineral, insoluble and soluble with great difficulty.*

Geological Age of the Deposits.—A fissure vein of wurtzilite is reported to be found in a region where none of the U. S. geological maps show rocks later than the Jurassic or Tertiary Cretaceous, and the same is true of one area of asphaltic rock. I have not examined these deposits and leave their age an open question. All the fields of sand asphalt that I have visited are plainly of Tertiary age. Most of them are in the Green River beds, some may be in the upper part of the Wasatch, and the thick beds found in the Ashley valley appear to be near the base of the very late Tertiary formation marked on Hayden's maps as Uinta and on that of Dr. C. A. White, 10th Ann. Report Director U. S. G. S., 87-88) named Brown's Park. The black asphaltic or bituminous shales (marls) are of Green River age. The bituminous limestones, so far as I have observed them, are of Green River and some perhaps are of Upper Wasatch age. The outcrop of the fissure veins of uintaite and some of the wurtzilite are in the Brown's Park rocks and therefore these veins were opened and filled after the Brown's Park epoch—obviously in case of outflow or halt we have to determine not only the date of origin of the primary bitumen but also the date of outflow. These fissure veins will be referred to again.

The Bituminous Rocks and Coal Beds.—In one place in the Ashley valley a coal bed about two feet thick has an underlayer a few inches thick, and that rests directly on the asphaltic rock. The coal is a fair specimen of the Tertiary coals of the region. It is free burning, not caking, and no bitumen

For a full description of Uintaite and Wurtzilite and their relations to albertite and elaterite, see article by Professor W. P. Blake, Proceedings of American Institute of Mining Engineers, Feb. 1890. I have recently learned of a locality where the wurtzilite is said to soften under heat so as to be drawn out into strings that tend to shorten. This grade is very near elaterite in behavior perhaps is identical with it. The Ute Indians have camped on almost all the uintaite and wurtzilite in this country. The valley of the DuChesne River, also some of the Lower White and adjacent parts of the Green River, are crossed by numerous fissure veins of these minerals, though wurtzilite is more often found as an out-flow product in the talus and scattered drift than in fissures. Both wurtzilite and uintaite are found in a great variety of situations. It is uncertain whether the hardening of the outflow into one or the other of these minerals is more to original differences in the chemical composition of the outflows or to the physical conditions under which they hardened after the outflow. I have heard of both minerals being derived from the same outflow. So far as at present known the facts seem to indicate that they are derived from malthas of different chemical composition.

has invaded it or its under-clay from the asphalt layer. The coal abounds in lumps of yellow, partially mineralized rosin, just like most of the softer coals of the mountain region.

In the Wasatch and Roan Mountains I have in several places found coal seams up to eighteen inches in thickness with the bituminous Green River shales and limestones both above and below them. Here the conditions for the formation of coal and asphalt rocks alternated.

Both the bituminous rocks and the coal beds are substantially conformable to the bedding, and both are somewhat lenticular.

A few years ago, Mr. C. A. Ashburner proposed as a basis of classification of coals the ratio of fixed carbon to volatile carbonaceous matter. As I understand it the term "fixed carbon" does not assume that all the carbon thus designated exists in the coal as carbon uncombined with hydrogen, etc., but refers to the residue after destructive distillation. It remains to be determined how far this test will apply to the asphalt. In western Colorado and Utah we find in the carbonaceous minerals all proportions of fixed carbon from one or two per cent in the maltha up to eighty-seven or more in the anthracite. The soft asphalts grade by insensible degrees into the hard asphalts (at least in their physical characteristics) and these in turn into jet, the cannel coals and bituminous shales, and these again into the caking coals, etc. Dana's Text-book of Mineralogy approves the theory that coals are chiefly composed of oxygenated hydro-carbons. In the Rocky Mountain region not only must a scientific classification of the coals take account of the oxygen contained in the different coals, but the industrial classification must do the same also. Many coals of this region when once inflamed will continue to burn for a long

My partial exploration does not yet warrant discussion of all the questions at issue but certain points may here be mentioned.

From Professor Orton's report above cited I extract a few statements of theories.

Dr. T. Sterry Hunt counts limestones the principal source of petroleum and denies that it has been produced by distillation from bituminous shales, while Dr. J. S. Newberry finds in the shales the main source of oil and gas, and vigorously opposes the view that limestones are ever an important source of either. Professors J. P. Lesley, I. C. White and J. D. Whitney favor the theory of the origin of petroleum by the primary decomposition of organic matter, while Dr. Newberry and Professor S. F. Peckham favor theories of secondary distillation. Hunt regards petroleum as indigenous when in limestones, and adventitious in the other rocks, as sandstones and conglomerates.

Since petroleum and asphaltum appear to have so nearly the same origin, it is permissible to discuss them in the same connection, especially as Dr. Newberry has referred the origin of the Utah asphalt to the marine Cretaceous black shales (Fox Hills and Colorado groups).*

Regarding the above stated theories we remark:

1. Certain Tertiary limestones of Colorado and Utah now contain considerable solid bituminous matter and once contained a liquid substance which has oozed out of the rock into cavities where it became changed to hard asphalt. The asphalt occurs as a great number of rather small masses and its aggregate quantity is great. This sort of rock is well exposed in the remarkable cañons of Parachute Creek, Col.

2. Professor Whitney refers the Tertiary bituminous minerals of California to organic matter derived from marine infusorians (quoted from Orton). In the Tertiary lakes of the region under description we might expect there would be drift-wood, many diatoms and fresh-water algæ and possibly infusorians enough to contribute considerable organic matter to the limestones. Irrespective of this source of organic matter, there are great numbers of fossil molluscan shells in the limestones. Hence although the lime rocks are in part non-fossiliferous and in part may be composed of lime precipitated from solution, yet we seem here to find evidence of the presence of organic matter within them sufficient to account for the indigenous origin of petroloidal bitumens according to Hunt's theory.†

3. The black bituminous shales are also to be considered in this connection. Certain layers are quite rich in bitumens.

* Dr. Newberry as quoted by Salt Lake Journal of Commerce.

† This hypothesis is strengthened by the highly probable indigenous origin of the petroleum of the Trenton limestone in Ohio and Indiana, Orton, op. cit.

They are distributed through several hundred feet of shales (or marls) and occasional limestones. Each stratum bears its own proportion of bitumen over large areas. The richer strata are not those nearest the limestones and they alternate with low grade strata. There are no veins or highly bituminized tracts leading from the limestones out into the shales, nor any other field evidence that after deposition the shales were bituminized from the limestones. Indeed these black shales are a very impenetrable rock. When veins of asphalt cross both limestones and shales the asphalt has in no place that I have discovered passed out into the shales and super-charged them.

Certain of the shale strata contain great numbers of imprints of deciduous leaves, water plants and insects, larvæ, etc. The carbonaceous matter of the leaves is not in the form of asphalt, but of charcoal or free-burning coal and contains quite a large proportion of fixed carbon. It is thus proved that certain strata contained a large amount of organic matter. As above noted there are occasional thin coal beds in the midst of the bituminous shales, but they do not contain more than the average quantity of bitumen found in the coals of the period. Evidently the conditions for the production of coal are very different from those that produce oil and asphalt, but the surprising thing is that we do not find the two conditions passing into one another by transitional steps.

Thus there is no proof that the shales were bituminized from the limestones and the coals have only their indigenous bitumen and volatile carbonaceous matter. So far as I have observed, the richer bituminous shales and asphaltic sand rocks are mostly non-fossiliferous and there is no direct evidence of the former

These rocks it may have been either by a general diffusion through the inter-granular spaces, or it may have been along fractures or fissures.

Now the coal of this region is no more bituminous than the Laramie and Tertiary coals of other coal fields outside of the asphalt area. The Laramie sandstones of the asphalt area are not like those found outside that area. Nobody has yet reported even one deposit of bituminous rock of Laramie age. It is incredible there should have been any general diffusion of liquid bitumens through so great a thickness of various kinds of rocks, without some of the bituminous matter remaining in those rocks, even after they have drained for ages. Moreover,

do not see why such a supposed ascension of petroleoids should be confined to the area of the Tertiary lakes instead of being spread over all the extensive area covered by the black shales. At Florence, Colo., most of the oil is said to be contained in a stratum of sandstone situated in the midst of the black shales, and if the overlying shale and the Laramie rocks have been sufficient to keep down the oil without a general diffusion into the Laramie sandstones, how could happen such an enormous upward diffusion in the region of the Tertiary lakes?

On the other hand, it may be urged that the oils of the marine black shales passed up along great fissures. The Tertiary lakes in question lay along the southern base of the Uinta Mountains and eastern base of the Wasatch. It is the conclusion of Powell, King and others that the Uinta uplift began at the close of the Laramie period and continued through Tertiary time. Great fissure veins of Uintaite now cross the region south of the Uinta Mountains and the Yampa plateau. The fissures cut down through the Brown's Park, Bridger and Green River beds, and nobody knows how much deeper. The fact that they are situated within 30 miles of where a great mountain range was pushed up to say nothing of the Wasatch uplift to the west, makes it highly probable they go down to profound depths and intersect the marine Cretaceous shales. Did the asphalt or any portion of it come up through these fissures? The details of an hypothesis to this effect would be about as follows: The petroleum of the black shales passed up through the fissures and floated on the surface of the water of the lake. Here it gradually oxidized or at least thickened, acquired a black color and became tarry asphalt. The wind blew it upon the sandy shores where it penetrated the sand. Off shore the mud contained in the water became entangled in the asphalt and sunk, carrying its sticky burden with it.* And even if we assume the indigenous origin of the bitumens

* See description by Dr. Joseph Leidy of the action of the mud of the Schuylkill River, on gas tar. Orton, op. cit.

with it. The concretions must have had their intergranular spaces filled with cement before the asphalt penetrated the pores of the sand around them.

A few miles farther west I found an asphaltic sand rock much cross-bedded. Alternate layers about half an inch thick contained more and less asphalt so that the rock was crossed by darker and lighter bands. The size of the grains of sand was so nearly uniform in the different layers that it did not seem probable some of the layers were originally more porous than others. A better interpretation is that the layers were charged from the surface during deposition of the rock, and the same causes that produced the intermittent deposition charged the layers unequally.

While here asphaltization was probably cotemporaneous with deposition, in the case of the concretionary rock above-mentioned, asphaltization did not take place till after the cementing of the concretions. Geologically this may not have been long. At Thistle, Utah, a sand rock containing molluscan shells is charged with asphalt which has also filled the interiors of the shells. Here the time of asphaltizing is not certain.

In general the small amount of fine sediment and calcareous, ferruginous or siliceous cements occurring with the asphalt in the pores of the sand rock, favors the hypothesis that the rock was charged with asphalt contemporaneously with or soon after deposition, and before it had time to become cemented into a compact, solid rock. All the richer sand asphalt readily softens under heat, proving it has practically no cement but asphalt. Apparently it is the presence of the asphalt that has kept the other cements out. Moreover I do not see how asphaltization of sediments can in general be so nearly parallel with stratifi-

Wasatch. The heat of these revolutions came respectively too early and too late, and I failed to find volcanoes very near. The fact that hard paraffines result from the fractional distillation of petroleum and from the destructive distillation of coals and asphalts would seem to make it probable the Wasatch paraffines resulted from such distillations. The absence of any other evidence of heat from the locality makes the presence of the paraffines more noticeable. The question arises, why should here be found the waxy paraffines, while all around so great quantities of asphalt were produced in rocks of nearly if not the same age? Evidently a great amount of work remains to be done before we can scientifically distinguish between the processes which severally resulted in the formation of coal, the oily and buttery paraffines, and the asphalts. While studying the subject a theory of a somewhat speculative nature has occurred to me. Paraffines have been found in the turpentine of pines.* Paraffines are among the most stable of the organic compounds. The hypothesis is suggested whether this waxy paraffine of the Wasatch region may not be due to that contained in the turpentine of conifers, and that this is a residuum of primary decomposition, all that remains of the original turpentine, the more unstable substances having disappeared. It is a fact that in the Rocky Mountain region the coal contains a large quantity of partially mineralized resin.†

Now if resin (dried and oxidized turpentine) has so long resisted decomposition and mineralization, it becomes by no means improbable that if a turpentine contained paraffine, that very refractory substance might remain after all the other ingredients had become decomposed and changed either to coal or to petroleoids, or indeed oxidized to carbonic acid. This question is evidently part of a larger question: how far were the hydro-carbons of the carbonaceous minerals formed within the living organisms from which these minerals were derived?‡

* Watt's Dictionary of Chemistry, III Supplement, art. paraffine. Also Roscoe and Schorlemmer, Chem., vol. iii. pt. 1, p. 140.

† According to Messrs. Remington and Gilson of Salt Lake City there is in Utah a bed of fossil resin several feet in thickness. It is still soluble in most solvents of resin, but will no longer unite with linseed oil to form a tough varnish. I have seen specimens of the mineral but have not made a field examination of the deposit and do not know its geological age.

‡ Mr. G. P. Wall, quoted by Orton, p. 500, gives a graphic picture of vegetable matter partially changed to asphalt. The description appears to refer to cellulose and woody fiber. What would become of the more soluble products of the plant, such as the oils, resins, paraffines and other non-oxygenated hydro-carbons? They appear to be able to withstand decomposition longer than the cellular tissues, and would certainly be dissolved in any petroleoid produced from those tissues. Would they simply enter into solution or into a chemical synthesis? These and other similar questions need to be solved before we can trace the relationships of the coals, petroleums, asphalts, fossil resins and acids, hard paraffines, etc.

Colorado Springs, March 3, 1891.

AM. JOUR. SCI.—THIRD SERIES, VOL. XLII, No. 248.—AUGUST, 1891.

ART. XIV.—*Photographic Investigation of Solar Prominences and their Spectra*; by GEORGE E. HALE. With Plate VIII.

It is now many years since any important advance has been made in our knowledge of the solar prominences. With the exception of spectrum photographs made at the Siam and Egyptian eclipses, and the momentary glimpses of mysterious "white prominences" during totality, almost nothing has been added to the collection of facts gathered nearly twenty years ago. After Professor Young's vigorous attack upon the chromosphere and prominence lines at Mount Sherman and elsewhere, other investigators seem to have been impressed with the belief that no further additions could be made to the long catalogue of lines drawn up by our most skillful solar observer, and the spectroscopic side of the matter was allowed to rest, though a continuous record has been kept of the forms of chromosphere and prominences. While it is probably true that the most persistent watching would be required to increase the number of known lines in the visual spectrum, it is rather singular that the importance of photography in a study of the ultra-violet has been entirely overlooked. While the positions of spots on the sun's disc are daily recorded by photography, the same cannot be said of the chromosphere and prominences, and even in investigations of the extremely complicated spot spectra, photography has been but little employed, experiments with it not having proved very successful.

It is unnecessary here to urge the importance of using photographic processes to assist the eye in nearly all classes of

collodion plate, and given an exposure of nearly four minutes.* Professor Young has very kindly shown me silver prints from the best original negatives; in these only the general outline of the prominence can be faintly seen. This is due partly to a small displacement of the image during the exposure, as the solar axis of the telescope was slightly out of adjustment. The nebulous character of G' makes its use objectionable, but the serious difficulty with this line lies in the employment of a wide slit. The brilliancy of the background of atmospheric spectrum increases very rapidly when the slit is opened, while the prominence itself grows no brighter. Thus the contrast in the photograph is greatly decreased, and the general illumination of the field, due to diffused light from the grating, or fluorescence of the prisms or object glasses, conspires to hide all details of structure. For these reasons the method has never been employed in practice.

It is beyond the scope of the present paper to describe the various methods of prominence photography proposed by Fraunhofer in 1825, Lockyer and Seabroke in the same year, Lohse in 1874 and 1880, Zenger in 1879, and Janssen in 1881. Suffice it to say, that in no instance was any success attained sufficient to bring the method into practical use, and in 1889 it was impossible to see where any advance whatever had been made beyond the brief experiments of Professor Young with a simple open slit.

In undertaking an investigation of the subject in the summer of the year last named, the writer devised two methods of accomplishing the desired result with a narrow slit, for it was evident that with any line in the prominence spectrum as then known, the use of a wide slit could not have more than an extremely limited application. In the first method the rate of the driving clock of the equatorial is so changed that the sun's image drifts at right angles across the slit of a spectroscope of high dispersion. At the focus of the observing telescope (of equal focal length with the collimator) a photographic plate moves at the same speed, at right angles to the axis of the telescope, and in the direction of dispersion. A narrow slit just in front of the plate allows only the line in use to fall upon it, and thus prevents fogging. It will be easily seen that fresh portions of the plate will be uncovered as the prominence drifts across the slit, and the result will be a latent image upon the photographic plate.

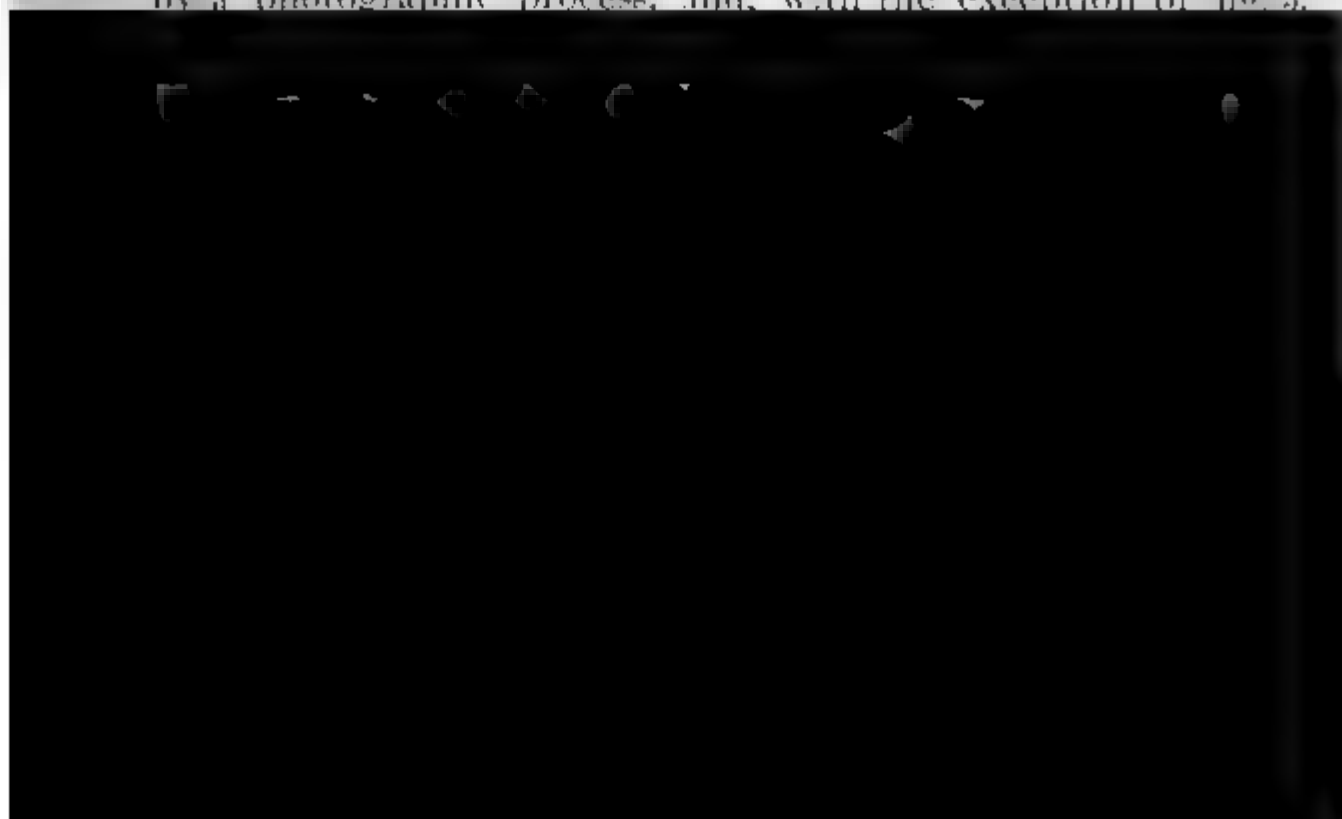
The second method exactly reverses the operations of the first. The sun's image is held in a fixed position by the driving clock of the equatorial, while the plate at the focus of the observing telescope is also stationary. The slit of the spectroscope is caused to move steadily across the end of the collima-

* Journal Franklin Institute, Oct. 3, 1870.

tor, while a corresponding slit before the plate moves at such a rate that the line in use passes constantly through it.

Both of these methods, together with the experiments carried on with the first at the Harvard Observatory and more recently at the Kenwood Physical Observatory, have been already described,* and in the present paper I wish to consider especially the results obtained in Chicago within the last few weeks.

In my earliest attempts at photographing the prominence spectrum I was much surprised to find narrow, sharp, bright lines running up through the center of the dark shades of both H and K, apparently to the very top of every prominence. At Mount Sherman in 1872 Professor Young, whose eyes are exceptionally sensitive to the shorter wave-lengths, had been able to see similar reversals of H and K, but the difficulties of observation were so great that he considered it probable that the whole width of each dark shade at H and K was reversed, the eye being able to perceive only the maximum of intensity at the center. Once or twice he noticed a bright line estimated to be about one division of Ångström's scale below the central reversal of H, but with the utmost precautions the eye was incapable of any accurate determinations of position or appearance in this part of the spectrum. But with high dispersion and care in manipulation the photographic plate meets with no difficulties, and the lines are obtained with ease. Fig. 1 of Plate VIII shows the reversals photographed with a radial slit, while for the negative used in making fig. 2 the slit was parallel to a tangent at the limb, and about 30" from it. All of the figures were made directly from the original negatives by a photographic process, and, with the exception of fig. 3,



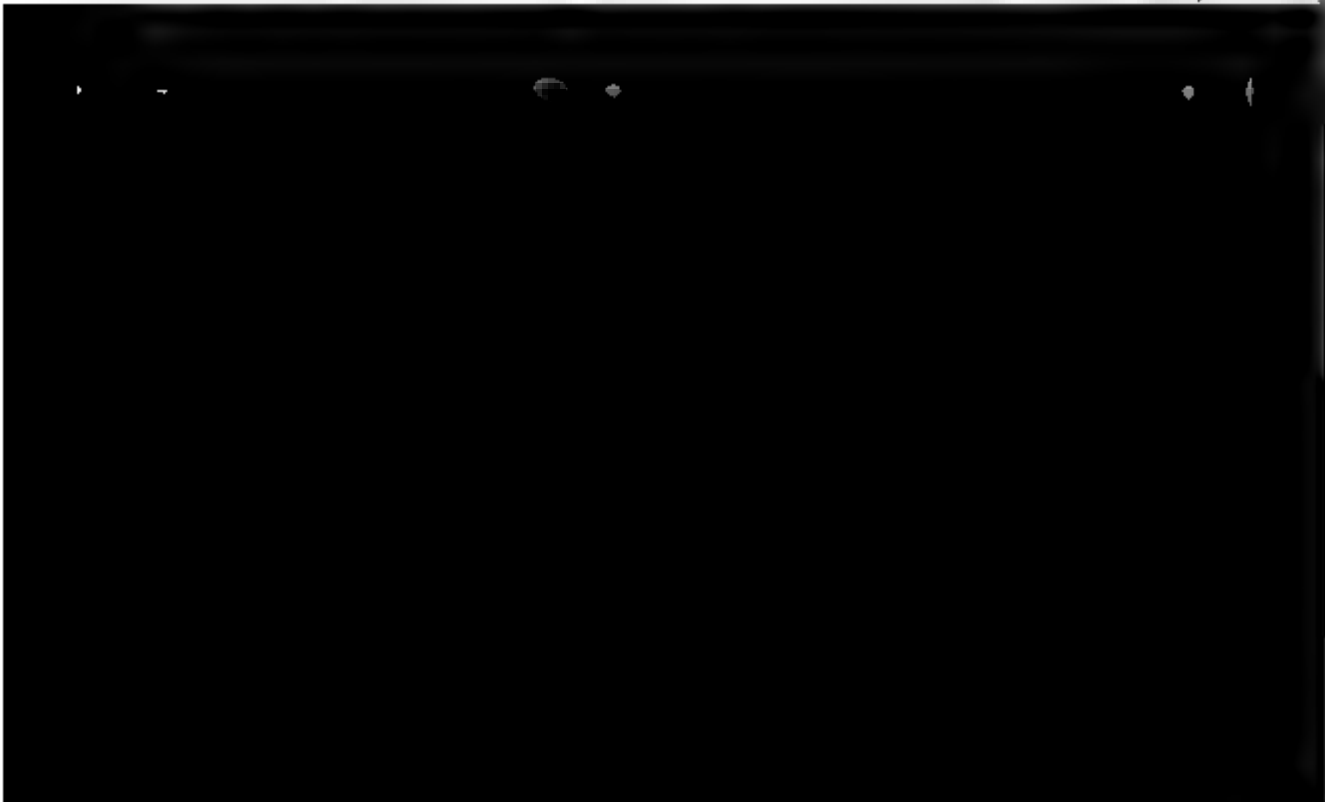
to agree in position with narrow dark lines at the center of the dark shades. Above in the ultra-violet the photographs bring out three new lines, which there are good reasons to regard as the first three lines of the hydrogen stellar series, though their wave-lengths have not been determined as yet. The lowest of the three, which probably corresponds with the line called hydrogen α in Dr. Huggins's map, has occasionally been glimpsed in the prominence spectrum by Professor Young, and its identity can now be certainly determined for the first time.* But the photographs have also revealed a new and interesting fact. On all the plates made with the focus of the observing telescope accurately adjusted for this region, the first line above K is shown to be a fine, sharp double, the separation of the components amounting to a few tenths of a tenth-metre. A special study of this double will be made when a new photographic object-glass of six feet focus has been completed for the spectroscope. The fourth order spectrum of our concave grating of ten feet radius will also probably be brought into service for work on the solar spectrum in this region.

As already suggested, the two upper prominence lines are probably coincident with two lines in the hydrogen series. Only one of these appears in fig. 2, where it is very faint. A photographic search for the remaining lines of the series is now in progress at the Kenwood Physical Observatory.

The important variations in the relative intensities of prominence lines revealed in eclipse photographs have been partially confirmed by my photographs. So far only one prominence has appeared in which the ultra-violet hydrogen lines could be photographed, and this showed a corresponding increase of brilliancy in the visual spectrum. But the H and K reversals are invariably strong, and easily photographed. Preliminary measures show that both lines probably belong to calcium, but this is yet to be definitely determined, and the origin of the broad dark shades in the solar spectrum is decidedly uncertain. In spite of the constant presence of the H and K bright lines in prominences, it can hardly be supposed that the substance producing them can be ordinary hydrogen, for several reasons. In the first place there is no provision for K in Balmer's series, and H certainly does not fall in the position of the hydrogen line, as it is about 1.5 tenth-metre more refrangible. Again, H and K do not follow the hydrogen lines in their intensity

* Great confusion is likely to result from the indiscriminate use of the letter H for "hydrogen" or for Fraunhofer's H line, and also in applying the Greek letters to the hydrogen lines, for some call the c line α , and others apply the same letter to the first hydrogen line in the ultra-violet. It is desirable to adopt some common nomenclature, and probably the most natural is to begin with c , and call this line "hydrogen α ," or else refer to each line by its wave-length.

variations, and in several cases I have photographed both H and K expanded and reversed over spots in which the C and F lines showed no signs of reversal. Some very recent photographs suggest the possibility that the substance producing the H and K bright lines occasionally ascends in prominences to a higher level than that reached by hydrogen itself (observed through C) in the same prominences, and the "white prominences" observed and photographed at several eclipses offer a most interesting case in point. At the Grenada eclipse of August 29, 1886, Prof. W. H. Pickering found in his photographs made during totality a spiral prominence 150,000 miles high, which had for the only lines in its spectrum H, K, and a faint trace of an ultra-violet line about half-way between K and L. There was also a brilliant contiguous spectrum in the visible region, but as the usual hydrogen lines were absent, Prof. Tacchini was unable to see the prominence by the usual spectroscopic method, either before or after totality. In his report Prof. Pickering adds: "It is highly probable that a great number of prominences pass by entirely unnoticed, because we rely solely upon visual instead of photographic methods of observation."* At the present moment I have not the remaining literature of this subject within reach, and must trust to memory for a few more references to similar phenomena. In the report of the eclipse of Jan. 1, 1889, published by the Lick Observatory, Dr. Swift alludes to the peculiar white appearance of some of the prominences, and in comparing the prominences photographed at the same eclipse with those observed on the same day at Palermo, P. Tacchini notes the presence in the photographs of two prominences seen neither at Palermo or Rome, and concludes that they are



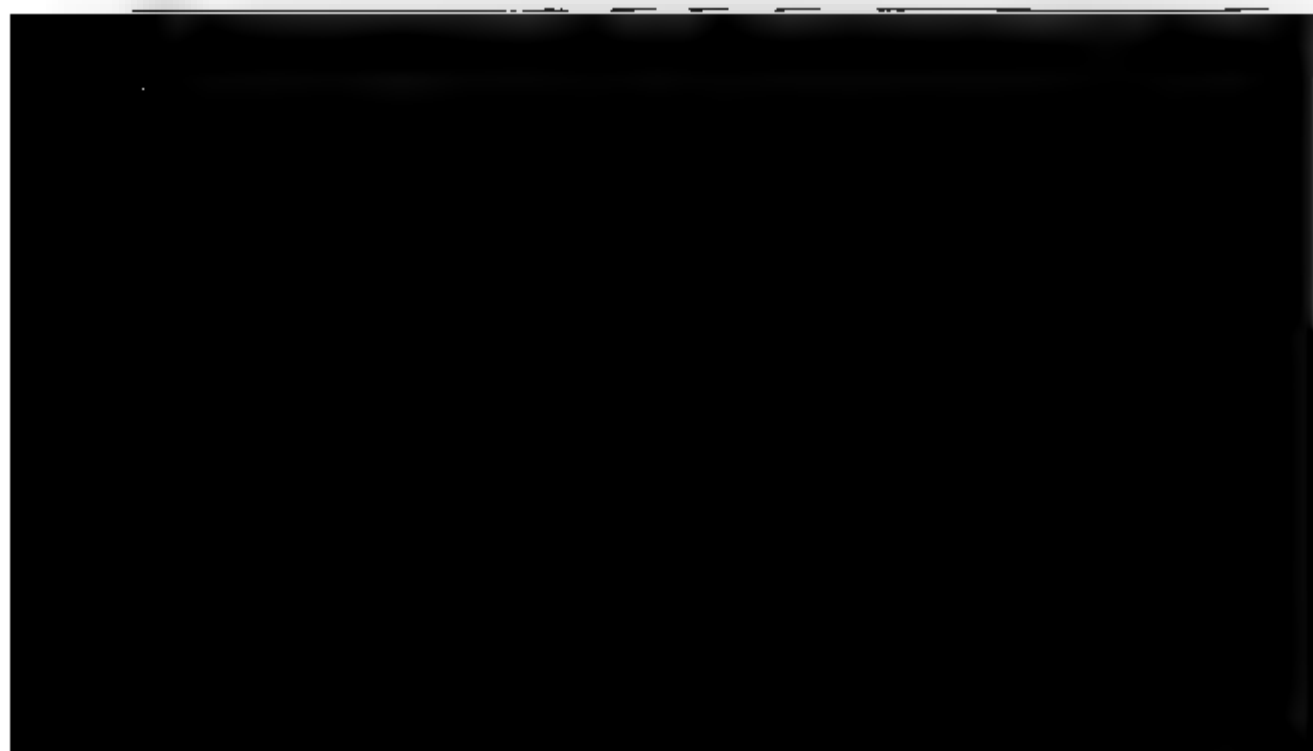
When the sharp and brilliant reversals of H and K were discovered at the beginning of my investigations in prominence photography at the Kenwood Physical Observatory, it at once became evident that a considerable advance had been made, for the substitution of either of these lines for the less rearrangeable hydrogen lines removed the serious difficulty of photographing the longer waves of the C region with short exposure. But apart from their position in the spectrum, the distinctive peculiarity of H and K specially fits them for prominence photography. The narrow bright lines, instead of being superposed on a brilliant continuous spectrum, as is the case with all of the other prominence lines, lie in the center of broad, dark bands, where the troublesome light of the atmosphere is missing. Thus both slits used in my apparatus for photographing the prominences could be much more widely opened, without the difficulty of fogging and loss of contrast experienced with the other lines. The result was that the first photograph made in this way proved a success. The prominence drifted slowly across a narrow tangential slit, and behind the second slit, at the focus of the observing telescope, a small cylinder with its axis parallel to the slit, carried a strip of sensitive film at a speed equal to that of the moving solar image. A smooth and uniform motion of the cylinder was produced by a small clepsydra. The photograph showed the form of the prominence very well, and with considerable contrast. It was then concluded, on account of the great width of the dark shades at H and K, that for prominences of not too great size (the image of the sun on the slit plate is two inches in diameter) it would only be necessary to use a wide slit, and give a short exposure. Fig. 3 shows the result of such an experiment. The wide slit was nearly tangent to the sun's limb, but did not quite touch it, in order to exclude the direct light. The exposure was about 2 seconds, and the dispersion that of the fourth order of a 14,438 grating. As an object-glass ($3\frac{1}{4}$ inches aperture and $42\frac{1}{2}$ inches focus) corrected for the visual region was used in the observing telescope of the spectroscope, the foci for H and K are slightly different. The photograph is about twice the size of the original, and was enlarged directly from it in the camera.

Although this method will serve to photograph the invisible prominences it is evident that there are two objections to it. In the first place it would be very troublesome to find invisible prominences, and to do so it would be necessary to take a large number of photographs with the slit tangent at various points on the limb. This could be remedied by using a curved or ring slit. Again, prominences surpassing a certain size could not be photographed, though for single narrow prominences

reaching to a considerable elevation it would be desirable to make the direction of the slit coincide with the direction of the longest axis of the prominence, the direct light from the limb being excluded by a small strip of metal, sliding under the slit. To overcome all of these difficulties I have devised a new form of apparatus, which will much excel the rotating cylinder in ease of adjustment, and allow the use of ordinary glass plates, instead of the celluloid film, which decomposes if kept for any length of time. A new form of clepsydra, of much larger size and with an improved valve, will replace the smaller one before used. The equatorial is also to be supplied with a 12 inch photographic object glass, and a new tube parallel to the old one, so that by a suitable form of cell, either object glass may readily be used on either tube, as the spectroscope is too large and heavy to be easily moved. The instrument will also allow eye observations through the C line to be made at the same instant that a photograph is exposed through H and K, and this will be important in comparisons of the form and extent of prominences as observed through different lines.

Since the above article was put in type, it has been decided to add another illustration (figure 4), which shows a much larger prominence, and of such peculiar shade as to be particularly interesting. The following is the record made on the observatory journal: "Chicago, July 8, 1891, 23 hours 45 minutes. prominence through H and K. As at first seen prominence was low, changed rapidly. A great flame shot out of the center about 80,000 miles high and lasted about fifteen minutes when it resumed its first shape." As shown in the figure, a low portion of the prominence is seen near the limb of the sun. This was what was first observed. The high portion lasted only about fifteen minutes and then the prominence returned to its original form as shown on the low portion of the negative.

Brooklyn, July 6, 1891.



mine, and a microscopical and chemical examination of the sinter, both confirm this hypothesis. It is therefore necessary to add this form of deposit to those already recognized in the classification of ore bodies.

As but little is generally known of the Mount Morgan mine a few notes condensed from Dr. Jack's report* are inserted:

This remarkable ore deposit forms the upper portion of the hill known as Mount Morgan, whose summit is about 500 feet above the surrounding lowland, and is some 1200 feet above sea level. The rocks in the immediate vicinity of the mine are bluish-gray quartzites forming part of a much disturbed series of beds of Carbonifero-Permian age. These beds are intersected by numerous dikes of igneous rocks, mainly rhyolite, and intrusive bodies of diorite and other eruptives. Reefs of gold-bearing quartz are common in this area of metamorphic rocks.

The workings of the mine show that the siliceous sinter forms a surface covering upon the slopes of the "mount." In such situations it has been found to be usually without gold, but the cup-shaped mass of sinter forming the central core and summit of the hill is impregnated with brown ironstone carrying as high as 169·86 oz. of gold to the ton.

The tunnels driven through the ore body at various levels show that the sinter though generally an unbroken mass is sometimes formed of large angular blocks, as if the deposit had been shattered. A dike of igneous rock now thoroughly decomposed and kaolinized, cuts the quartzites and extends upward through the sinter. There is no hydrothermal activity whatever, in the vicinity of the mine, at the present day, though hot springs occur in other parts of Queensland.

The sinter which Dr. Jack has sent as representative of that forming the main body of the ore deposit he describes as "a very light, frothy, spongy or cellular rock, so light from the entanglement of air in its pores as to float in water like pumice." In thin section this material is dark between crossed nicol prisms; its structure and general appearance is that of a hot spring deposit, though no sinters quite like it have as yet been found by the writer. It can be positively stated that this material is not a pumice, but is a hot spring deposit. The analysis No. 1 of the following table was made in the Laboratory of the U. S. Geological Survey by Mr. E. A. Schneider, shows this sinter to be a remarkably pure form of opal.

Analysis No. II, of a sinter from the Yellowstone Park, was made by J. E. Whitfield in the laboratory of the U. S. Geological

* Mount Morgan Gold Deposits. Second Report by Robert L. Jack, Government Geologist, Queensland, Australia, 1889.

Survey, and No. III. from Steamboat Springs, Nevada (Woodward).*

A specimen of the auriferous hematite from this mine possesses a stalactitic structure, and must have formed in a cavernous space in the sinter. Similar siliceous ironstones are formed about the hot springs of the Yellowstone, by the oxidation of the cooled overflow waters of the springs as they drip into cavities and holes in the sinter deposits.

Analysis of Siliceous Sinter.

| | I. | II. | III. |
|--------------------|-------|--------|--------|
| Silica | 94.02 | 93.88 | 92.67 |
| Alumina | 2.27 | 1.72 | 0.80 |
| Ferrous oxide..... | | 0.14 | |
| Lime | 0.07 | 0.25 | 0.14 |
| Magnesia..... | trace | 0.07 | 0.05 |
| Soda | | 0.28 | 0.18 |
| Potash | | 0.23 | 0.75 |
| Sulph. acid..... | | 0.20 | |
| Chlorine | | | |
| Sodic chloride ... | | 0.18 | |
| Water (105°)..... | 1.07 | 3.37 | 5.45 |
| Ignition | 2.29 | | |
| Total | 99.72 | 100.33 | 100.04 |

Two peculiar specimens of the earthy portions of the ore-mass are thus described by Dr. Jack in a letter to the writer. "It occurs surrounded by siliceous sinter on the southern slope of the mountain 35 feet perpendicularly beneath the surface, and 50 feet from the mouth of the tunnel on No. 2 tunnel."



this nature, about the springs on the northern shores of the Yellowstone Lake.

It has long been known, that the Steamboat Springs of Nevada, are surrounded by deposits of sinter in the fissures of which ore deposition is now taking place, a small amount of gold being found in these contemporaneous mineral veins.* The Mount Morgan mine is, however, the only hot spring deposit known, that has been found to contain gold in commercially valuable quantities.

The most remarkable hot spring district of the world is undoubtedly that of the Yellowstone Park. The variety of these springs, and the extensive deposits which they have formed, naturally suggests the possible existence of metaliferous deposits. Yet a careful search for such deposits has been made for the past eight years, by the members of the geological survey party, under Mr. Arnold Hague, without bringing to light a single case of this sort. Extensive collections of the hot spring waters and of the hot spring deposits have been subjected to most careful analytical examinations in the laboratory of the Survey, without finding even a trace of the precious metals.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

I. CHEMISTRY AND PHYSICS.

1. *On the Chemistry of the Secondary Battery.*—The phenomena of charging and discharging a secondary cell are accompanied by chemical changes in the electrodes and in the electrolyte, attended with an evolution of gas. These phenomena have been investigated by CANTOR for the purpose of ascertaining what these chemical changes are; the electrodes and the electrolyte both being analyzed before and after charging and the oxygen and hydrogen given off during the process measured. Some difficulty was found in ascertaining directly the changes in the electrodes; so that they were indirectly determined by charging each plate of the cell separately, using as a second electrode, a plate whose chemical constitution remains unaffected. Under these conditions any change which takes place in the electrolyte must be due solely to the reaction taking place between it and the electrode, including the gas evolved. Since this gas can be determined and also the change which has taken place in the composition of the electrolyte, it is evident that from these data the change taking place in the electrode itself can be ascertained. The author's studies thus far have been confined to the negative plate, this plate consisting of a sheet of lead coated with a mixture

* Becker, Geology of the Quicksilver deposits, page 343.

of lead oxide and lead sulphate. This plate is made to form the cathode and a plate of platinum the anode in a solution of sulphuric acid. The following are the results obtained: The first action on the plates is to convert the lead oxide into sulphate. Then the hydrogen evolved in the electrolysis reduces this lead sulphate forming metallic lead and sulphuric acid. The metallic lead thus freshly reduced attacks the sulphuric acid, evolving hydrogen and forming lead sulphate again; these reciprocal processes continuing until a condition of equilibrium is reached and the cell is charged. This local action it is which has led Streintz and others erroneously to conclude that hydrogen is occluded in the lead plate.—*Monatsb.* ix, 433; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 514, May, 1891.

G. F. R.

2. *On the Dead Space in Chemical Reactions.*—A third paper has been published by LIEBERICH on the dead space in chemical reactions. The appearance of this dead space depends in the view of the author upon the less mobility of the molecules at the surfaces of liquids; a fact which he seems to have proved by a series of interesting experiments. From this it follows that the surfaces of liquids oppose resistance to the motion of solid bodies against them, when driven by a slight force, in the same way as a solid wall would do. Such phenomena may be produced when one liquid is allowed to rise through another of less density, in case the friction-coefficient of the liquids is sufficiently large. The author abundantly shows how by the application of different meniscus-shaped forms, the shape of the entering liquid currents suffers changes; while in a certain sense it adapts itself to them. In this way phenomena can be obtained quite analogous to those which are observed in the dead space in chemical reactions.—*Ber. Ak. Berl.*, 1890, 1239; *Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, (Ref.) 301, April, 1891.

G. F. R.

3. *A new Reaction of Carbon monoxide.*—BERTHELOT has

minger's Report, 1873, I, part III, pp. 69-71; and the limestone considered from its fossils to be Trenton or some adjacent lower Silurian strata. It was inferred by Jackson that the limestone underlies the sandstone but by the other observers that overlies it although no direct contact was seen.

Excavations made by Mr. Honnold's party, and reported by him, have developed the contact of the two formations, and show that the two form a synclinal or oblong basin-shaped fold, with the limestone overlying, and in direct contact with the sandstone. The existence of this fold in the sandstone as well as in the limestone removes the difficulty previous observers have had in reconciling the obviously tilted limestone with the supposed horizontal sandstone, and proves that the Eastern sandstone exposed here is of Lower Silurian age and older than this limestone.

At the point of contact of the two formations, exposed by excavation, the sandstone and limestone appear to be conformable, and they are seen to constantly agree in dip and strike. The contact between the two formations is abrupt, without any beds of passage, although the upper layers of the sandstone contain considerable carbonate of lime and magnesia, and the lower layers of the limestone much silica.

These observations are considered to be confirmatory of the commonly received view of the Potsdam age of the Eastern sandstone; while the contorted state of the sandstone, extending at least one and one-half miles west from the limestone locality, may have weight in deciding the relative age of the Eastern sandstone and the Copper-bearing rocks.

A careful study of the fossils will be made and additional field work done, when the results will be published in detail.

Michigan Mining School,
Houghton, Michigan, July 3d, 1891.

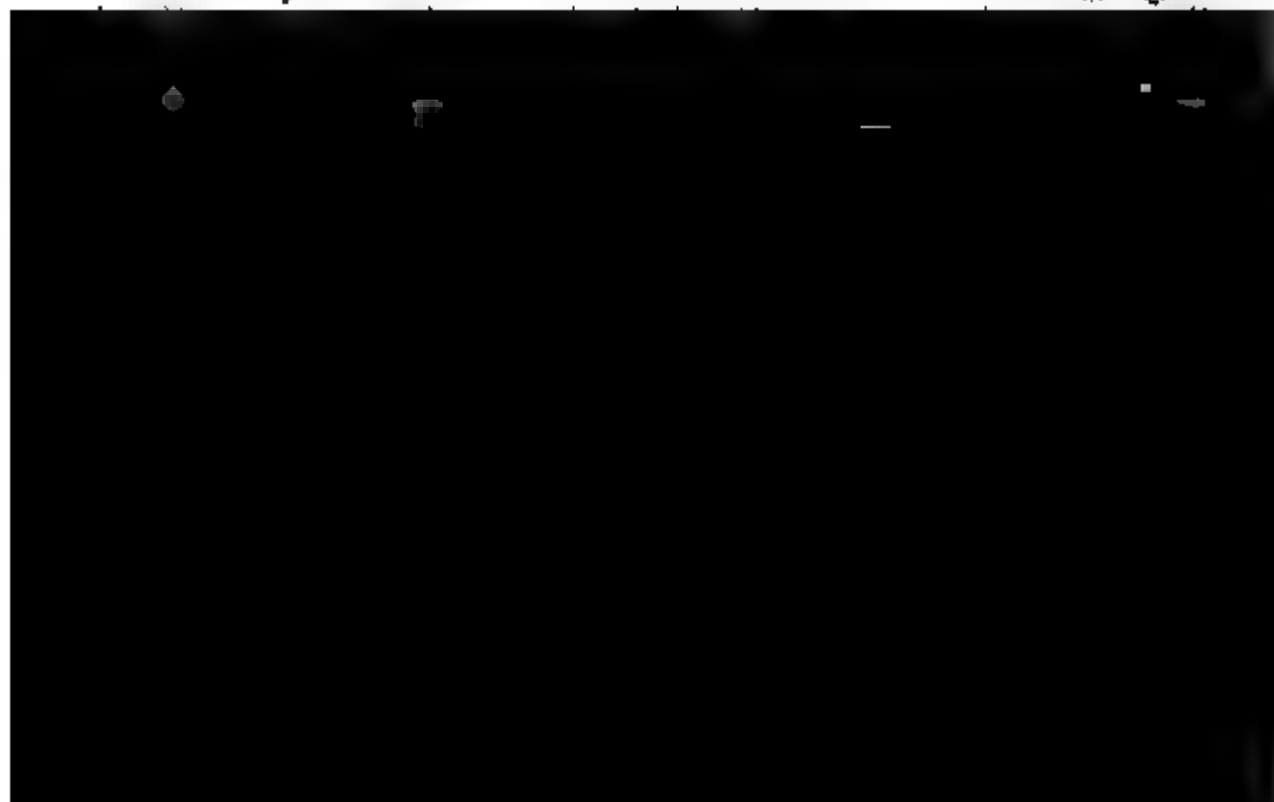
2. *Expedition to Mt. St. Elias in the summer of 1890 by Lieut. C. Russell.* 200 pp. 8vo, with 20 plates and several figures. The third volume of the National Geographic Magazine contains an account of this expedition to Mt. St. Elias by Mr. Russell. It went out under the auspices of the National Geographic Society and the United States Geological Survey. Mr. Mark B. Herr was the topographical assistant in the survey, and Mr. E. S. Smer of Washington, a volunteer general assistant. Although the summit of Mt. St. Elias was not reached, important additions were made by it to the knowledge of the glaciers of the region and highly interesting discoveries regarding its geology. The formations recognized are (1) sandstones and shales about Yakutat Bay, and westward to Icy Bay, which Mr. Russell names *Yakutat system*; (2) shales, conglomerates, limestones, sandstones, etc., named the *Pinnacle system*, occurring in the cliffs of Pinnacle Pass, 5000 feet above the sea-level, and along the north- and western borders of the Samovar Hills on the borders of the Seward glacier; and (3) the metamorphic schists of the main

St. Elias range. The limestone of the second of these formations was found to be fossiliferous, and to afford a *Pecten*, *Mya arenaria*, *Mytilus edulis*, *Leda fossa*, *Macoma inconspicua*, *Cardium Islandicum*, *Litorina Atkana*—species that are now living, according to Dall, in the cold waters of the region. The age of the beds, is therefore, as stated, "Pliocene or early Pleistocene." The Yakutat beds are regarded as probably younger than those of the Pinnacle system.

The uplifts of the region producing the mountains, including St. Elias, are consequently referred to an epoch since "the close of the Tertiary." In the view of Mr. Russell "the southern face of Mt. St. Elias is a fault-scarp. The mountain itself is formed by the upturned edge of a faulted block in which the stratification is inclined northeastward. The mountain stands at the intersection of two lines of displacement, one trending in a northeasterly and the other in a northwesterly direction. The one trending northward extends beyond the junction with the northeasterly fault. The point of union is at the pass between Mt. St. Elias and Mt. Newton. The upturned block, bounded on the southwest by a great fault, projects beyond the northeasterly fault. It is this projecting end of a roof-like block that forms Mt. St. Elias."

This view of the mountain is before the future investigator. Another view, for like study, is the possibility that St. Elias existed in essentially its present form before the Quaternary, and had (along with the country about it) 5000 or more feet added to its elevation above the water-level at the time of the uplift of the Quaternary beds.

3. *Glacier scratches south of the "terminal Moraine" in Western Pennsylvania.*—Messrs. P. M. FOSHAY and R. R. HICK, in a paper in the 2d volume of the Bulletin of the Geological Society of America (p. 467), describe and figure glacial scratches observed by them on the western bluff of the rock gorge of



38 cubic yards, or 755,756 cubic yards per year, or 53,784 cubic yards per linear mile. The total loss from the three sections is stated at 32,233,030 cubic yards.

5. *Der Peloponnes Versuch einer Landeskunde auf geologischer Grundlage*, nach Ergebnissen eigener Reisen von Dr. ALFRED HILIPPSON. 8vo. Berlin, 1891. (R. Friedländer and Son.) Part of this work on the Geology of the Peloponnesus, extending to 72 pages, is accompanied by a large, colored geological map and many profile sections.

III. BOTANY.

1. *Botanic Gardens in the Equatorial Belt and in the South Seas* [*First Paper.*].—It is my purpose to give, in the following notes, some account of the more important Botanic Gardens visited by me during a recent journey. The tour carried me from Genoa, through the canal at Suez, to Ceylon, in which country *Pérádeniya* and *Hakgala* were examined; thence to Adelaide in South Australia; Melbourne and Geelong in Victoria; Hobart in Tasmania; Dunedin, Christchurch, and Wellington, in New Zealand; Sydney in New South Wales; Brisbane in Queensland; Buitenzorg in Java; Singapore in the Straits Settlement; Saigon, Hong Kong, and Shanghai, in China; and Tokio in Japan. With the exception of Shanghai and Tokio the visits were made in favorable seasons: in northern China and in Japan the spring was not far advanced, but the early flowers were in perfection.

The journey was undertaken with a view of securing from the establishments in question for the University Museum at Cambridge, specimens illustrative of the useful products of the vegetable kingdom. In every instance, the writer met with a cordial reception and received innumerable courtesies, for which he desires to thank again the Directors, Curators, and Superintendents of the various botanical establishments. Every facility was afforded for careful inspection of the workings of the gardens and Museums, and it should be added, of the educational institutions with which some of them were connected.


A satisfactory photographic outfit rendered it possible to supplement the collections of photographic views which were purchasable at most points; so that the series, now stored in the Museum at Cambridge, may be regarded as one of the largest yet brought together. It comprises views not only of groups of plants both in gardens and in their wild state, but of individual plants as well. Early next year these illustrations will be accessible to visiting naturalists.

The present sketch will follow essentially the route outlined in preceding paragraph, beginning with the gardens in Ceylon.

Pérádeniya and Hakgala. (Ceylon).—After the deserts of Egypt and Arabia, and of treeless Aden have been passed, the traveller comes by an abrupt transition upon tropical luxuriance of vegetation. There is to be sure, a distant glimpse of Socotra,

but its shores are too far away to yield anything plainly discernible, and even Minicoy, an island lying between the Maldives and Laccadives, gives only a faint suggestion of plant life. Its low-lying land is fringed with scattered coconut palms, of which later one sees so many. Before reaching Ceylon the ship passes within sight of the southern point of India, but not near enough to show what its plants are like. In fact, therefore, the arrival in the harbor of Colombo brings a surprise. Coming down to the shore, and extending as far as the eye can reach on either side, are crooked coconut palms, here and there intermingled with trees having foliage of the deepest green. A botanist is struck at once by the superb capabilities of such a country for a tropical garden. These capabilities were not overlooked by the Dutch, who succeeded the Portuguese in possession. A Botanic Garden was founded by them at Slave Island in Colombo, but when the Dutch were driven out by the British it fell into neglect. There was, however, at this period, an excellent garden connected with the country place of the first English Governor, near Colombo, which at the beginning of this century was under the charge of a naturalist, who gave it somewhat the character of a botanical garden.

In 1810, Sir Joseph Banks sketched the plan for a Botanical Garden in Slave Island, Colombo, and succeeded in transferring thither from Canton, Mr. Kerr, who became its chief. According to the work from which I have derived these facts, the Slave Island garden was found subject to floods, and consequently the establishment was moved to Kalutara. One finds here and there in Colombo traces of the old occupancy remaining in the names of some of the streets, "Kew" for instance. From Kalutara the garden was transferred in 1821 to its present site. Since that time the large garden has established four branches, in order to secure all the advantages which can come from having land at



ing beauty. Above the garden is a frowning double cliff 100 ft. high, and all around, the views are most attractive. The Gate affords one of the best of these. The landscape reaches over the Uva district towards the Haputale gap and the Madulla hills. On entering the garden the bewilderment begins. In every hand one sees species in the most grotesque juxtaposition. Plants from Australia such as Casuarinas and Acacias are perfectly at home with East and West Indian, Japanese, and English plants. Of the latter there are many which seemed old and well established.

Although the garden is used primarily for experimental purposes it has been laid out with regard to effectiveness of grouping and with remarkable success. A botanical visitor is, however, constantly trying to separate in his mind the different plants from the curious collocations which everywhere abound and demonstrate better than in any other place I have ever seen, the wide range of tolerance of climate. The superintendent, Mr. W. Nock, who has had large experience in the West Indies, has carried on some interesting experiments in acclimatizing plants from the western hemisphere, such as "cherimoyer" and the like. There are few plants in the garden more attractive from an economic point of view than the vegetables of doubtful promise, such as Arracacha, and those of assured culinary position "Choco" or "Chocho" (*echium edule*) for example. Some of the medicinal plants in the garden were doing well in every way, while others have proved somewhat disappointing, for instance, jalap and ipecacuanha. The ferns, especially the tree ferns, and the species of Eucalyptus form one of the marked successes at this garden. Mr. Nock stated that the most troublesome weed in the garden is a species, perhaps more than a single species) of *Oxalis*: it is simply possible to eradicate it.

(5) *Péradeniya*.—The gardens are four miles from Kandy, and about eighty from Colombo. The railroad passes through lowlands and rice-fields, past native villages surrounded by plantains and coconuts, and through occasional jungles, until it reaches higher ground. The scenery changes rapidly, forests now and then appearing in the foreground, with occasional views of distant castellated mountains. As the mountains rise out of the terraced rice-fields and from the shrubs of the jungles, the eye catches on every hand glimpses of groups of bent coconut palms and straight arecas. It is difficult to realize that these palms can, perhaps without exception, human habitations at their feet. Through these scenes of enchanting beauty, the railroad has made its way, demanding here and there very skillful engineering. The track is lined with *Lantana* which is slowly giving way before the encroachments of a still stronger invader, a Composite from Mexico. *Mimosa pudica* is also widely spread as a long weed.

The drive from Kandy to the great garden is through a well paved street lined with native houses. These are gathered at short intervals into villages.

My first visits to this garden were made, as were those in every other instance save one on the whole tour, without reporting to the Director. In this way a student can take things very leisurely, and look up matters of detail which it is not right or courteous to trouble the chiefs with: later, all special points of interest which have escaped notice are likely to be brought out by a walk with the Director. The establishment at Pérádeniya consists (1) of 150 acres of garden proper and of arboretum, (2) of a museum and herbarium with library attached. The Director, Dr. Henry Trimen, widely known as an author and editor, controls not only these, but the branch gardens as well, making his headquarters at Pérádeniya.

Once for all it may be said that botanists are made welcome in every way, finding every facility for carrying on systematic work. The climate is healthful, provided one takes ordinary and reasonable precautions against exposure to the direct rays of the sun in the hottest part of the day. If I remember rightly, the Director, even in his long walks through the garden and in his excursions seldom wears the conventional pith-helmet. American students need not fear that they will suffer greater discomfort from the hot weather at Kandy and Pérádeniya than in summer in the United States and Canada. Access to Ceylon (and for that matter, Java) has now been made so easy by the newer swift steamers, that it seems advisable to mention these facts about the climate.

It is impossible to describe the wealth of material placed at the service of every visitor to the two great gardens of the equatorial belt, that under present review and the one at Buitenzorg, to be considered in a subsequent note. It is equally impossible to institute a comparison between the two.

In both of these vast establishments the student finds magnificent specimens of all or very nearly all the useful plants belonging to hot moist climates. Many years ago the writer had the privilege of seeing tropical plants at the Isthmus of Panama, but even

main entrance, and the avenue of *Oreodoxa*, are only a few examples of the finer groups of single species. The most imposing group of different species is that of the palms not far from the gate. The classified arboretum is rich in fine specimens, the principal orders being represented on a generous scale.

The nurseries, kitchen-garden, rockery for succulents, ferneries, and clusters of economic plants are on a scale commensurate with the arboretum. As might be expected, the orchids are by no means so fine as the collections one sees in large private establishments in England and on the continent: it is not possible to command the conditions of growth for all the finer species with the same degree of certainty as in colder regions where a stove means something.

At the time of my visit, *Amherstia nobilis* and the great crape myrtle were in full flower, and a large Talipot palm in bloom was one of the most conspicuous objects. I was a little too early in Ceylon for some of the tropical fruits, and too late for a few others, but fortunately was able to remedy this lack farther on in Queensland and Java.

Among the finest of the photographic views of the gardens in Pérádeniya are the following: (1) the main entrance, with the long lines of Assam rubber trees, and the cluster of different palms, (2) the avenue of royal palms, (3) the different bamboos at the ponds, (4) the distant view of the satin-wood bridge. The view from the Herbarium is also one of great beauty.

Visitors to the gardens are greatly assisted by the intelligent native servants detailed to act as guides. They have a fair knowledge of the whereabouts of almost all the important plants and seldom go wrong with regard to names. It should be stated also that the natives employed in widely different stations in the establishment prove, according to the Director and the Superintendent, generally efficient.

The Herbarium is rich in certain directions and can be consulted by students under proper restrictions. The Museum is as yet small.

It remains to be said that plants and seeds are for sale at the garden, at moderate prices. A Wardian case packed with forty assorted plants is shipped for 40 rupees, say about 16 to 20 dollars.

The influence for good which has been exerted in Ceylon by the garden and its branches is incalculable. The establishment has proved a center of scientific activity and of high economic value.

G. L. G.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

1. *Die Denudation in der Wüste und ihre geologische Bedeutung. Untersuchungen über die Bildung der Sedimente in den Ägyptischen Wüsten*; JOHANNES WALTHER, A. O. Prof. Univ. Jena. pp. 224, large 8vo, with 8 plates and 99 cuts. Leipzig, 1891. (S. Hirzel.)—This memoir makes part of vol. xvi of the

Transactions of the Mathematico-Physical Section of the "Königl. Sächsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften." It is a work of great interest, treating of the causes producing denudation in the Egyptian desert and its results, and is illustrated by many excellent and instructive figures. The chief causes of denudation mentioned are deflation, or the work of the winds directly in denudation by removing whatever is sufficiently loose or has been loosened by decomposition or otherwise, and the work in abrasion by transported sands; 2d, Insolation, or the effects of the sun or heat over the surface of rocks by changes of temperature and especially those of day and night; (3) Decomposition or alteration through any means; (4) The eroding and transporting action of waters, rains being not wholly absent. (5) Vegetation, as a means of modifying results. The results in the formation of deposits are also described. The work is of special value to American geologists.

2. *History of Volcanic Action in the area of the British Isles*, by A. GEIKIE. Anniversary Address before the Geological Society of London, Feb., 1891. Quart. J. G. Soc. xlvii.—More has thus been learned about volcanic action in Paleozoic time from the British Isles than from all the rest of the world. Dr. Geikie, in his Anniversary Address, commences a full review of the interesting subject. Although extending to one hundred pages, the review covers only the earlier part of the history, to the close of the Upper Silurian.

3. *Magnetic Declination in the United States for the Epoch of 1890*.—Mr. CHARLES A. SCHOTT has a paper of seventy-five pages on this subject, in the Report of the Superintendent of the Coast Survey, Prof. T. C. Mendenhall, for 1889, consisting chiefly of tables giving the results of observations reduced to the year 1890.

4. *Telescopic Work for Starlight Evenings*, by WILLIAM F.

APPENDIX.

ART. XVI.—*Restoration of Stegosaurus*; by O. C. MARSH. (With Plate IX.)

IN this Journal, in 1877, the writer described a remarkable extinct reptile from Colorado, under the name *Stegosaurus armatus*,* and later a much more perfect specimen of another species, *Stegosaurus unguulatus*, from essentially the same horizon, in the Jurassic of Wyoming.† The latter specimen was in fine preservation, and the more important parts of the skull and skeleton, and especially of the remarkable dermal armor, were secured. Subsequently, more than twenty other specimens of these and other species were obtained, so that nearly every part of the osseous structure thus became known, and only portions of the dermal armor were in doubt. A fortunate discovery cleared away most of the doubt in regard to one species, *Stegosaurus stenops*, as the type specimen had the skull, skeleton, and dermal armor together when entombed, and almost in the position they were when the animal died.

With this rich material at hand, an attempt has been made to give a restoration of one of the group, and the type specimen of *Stegosaurus unguulatus* has been selected as the basis. This has been supplemented by a few portions of the skeleton of *Stegosaurus duplex*, apparently a closely allied species from nearly the same locality, while some other parts, especially of the dermal armor, have been placed in accordance with their known position in *Stegosaurus stenops*.

The result is given in Plate IX, which is believed to represent faithfully the main features of this remarkable reptile, as far as the skeleton and principal parts of the dermal armor are concerned. This figure, one-thirtieth natural size, is reduced from a larger restoration, one-tenth natural size, made for

* This Journal, III, vol. xiv, p. 513, December, 1877.

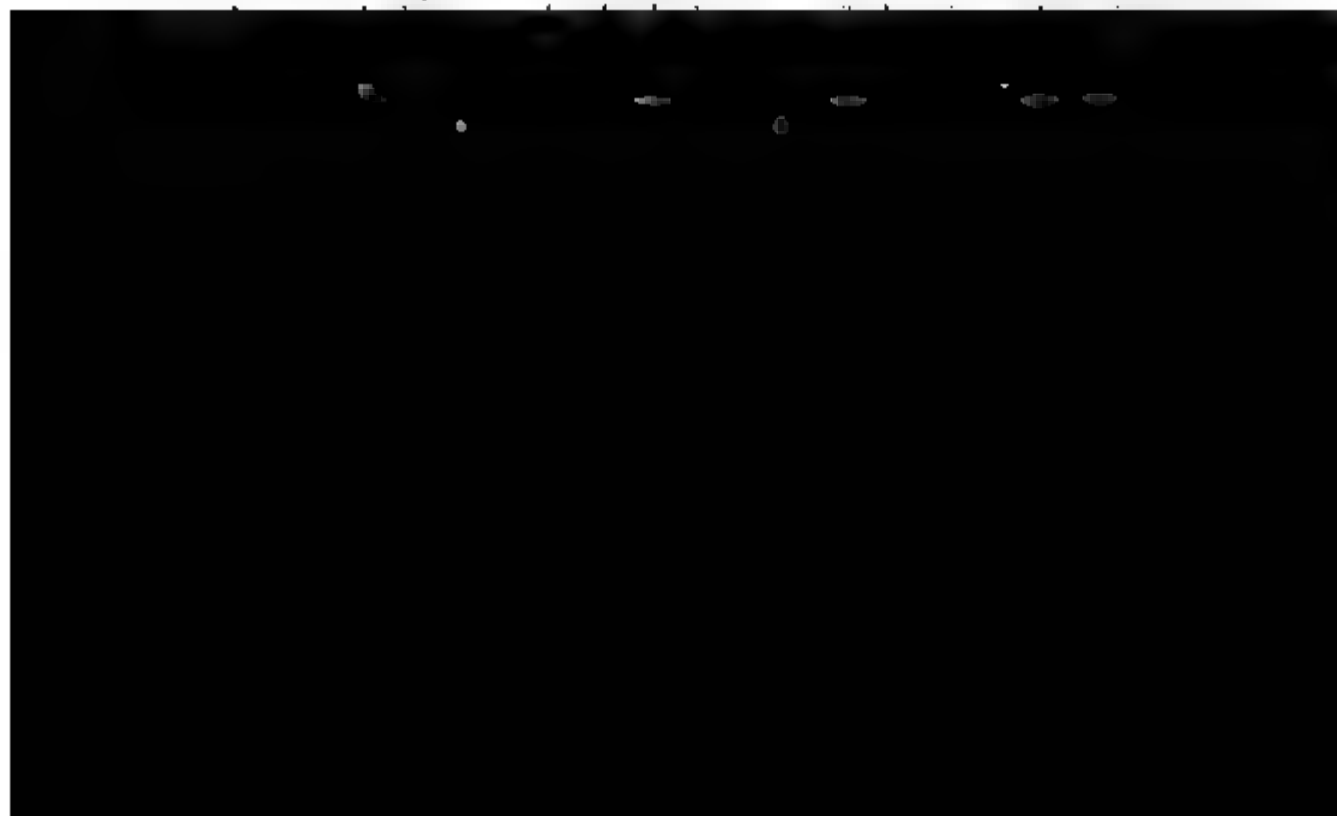
† Ibid., vol. xviii, p. 504, December, 1879. See also, vol. xix, p. 253, March, 1880; vol. xxi, p. 167, February, 1881; and vol. xxxiv, p. 413, November, 1887.

a lithographic plate to accompany the monograph of the *Stegosauria*, prepared by the writer for the U. S. Geological Survey.

In this restoration, the animal is represented as walking, and the position is adapted to that motion. The head and neck, the massive fore limbs, and, in fact, the whole skeleton, indicate slow locomotion on all four feet. The longer hind limbs and the powerful tail show, however, that the animal could thus support itself, as on a tripod, and this position must have been easily assumed in consequence of the massive hind quarters.

In the restoration as here presented, the dermal armor is the most striking feature, but the skeleton is almost as remarkable, and its high specialization was evidently acquired gradually as the armor itself was developed. Without the latter, many points in the skeleton would be inexplicable, and there are still a number that need explanation.

The small, elongated head was covered in front by a horny beak. The teeth are confined to the maxillary and dentary bones, and are not visible in the figure here given. They are quite small, with compressed, fluted crowns, and indicate that the food of this animal was soft, succulent vegetation. The vertebræ are solid, and the articular faces of the centra are bi-concave or nearly flat. The ribs of the trunk are massive, and placed high above the centra, the tubercle alone being supported on the elevated diapophysis. The neural spines, especially those of the sacrum and anterior caudals, have their summits expanded to aid in supporting the massive dermal armor above them. The limb bones are solid, and this is true of every other part of the skeleton. The feet were short and



peculiar armor used for offense. In addition to the portions of armor above mentioned, there was a pair of small plates just behind the skull, which served to protect this part of the neck. There were also, in the present species, four flat spines, which were probably in place below the tail, but as their position is somewhat in doubt, they are not represented in the present restoration.

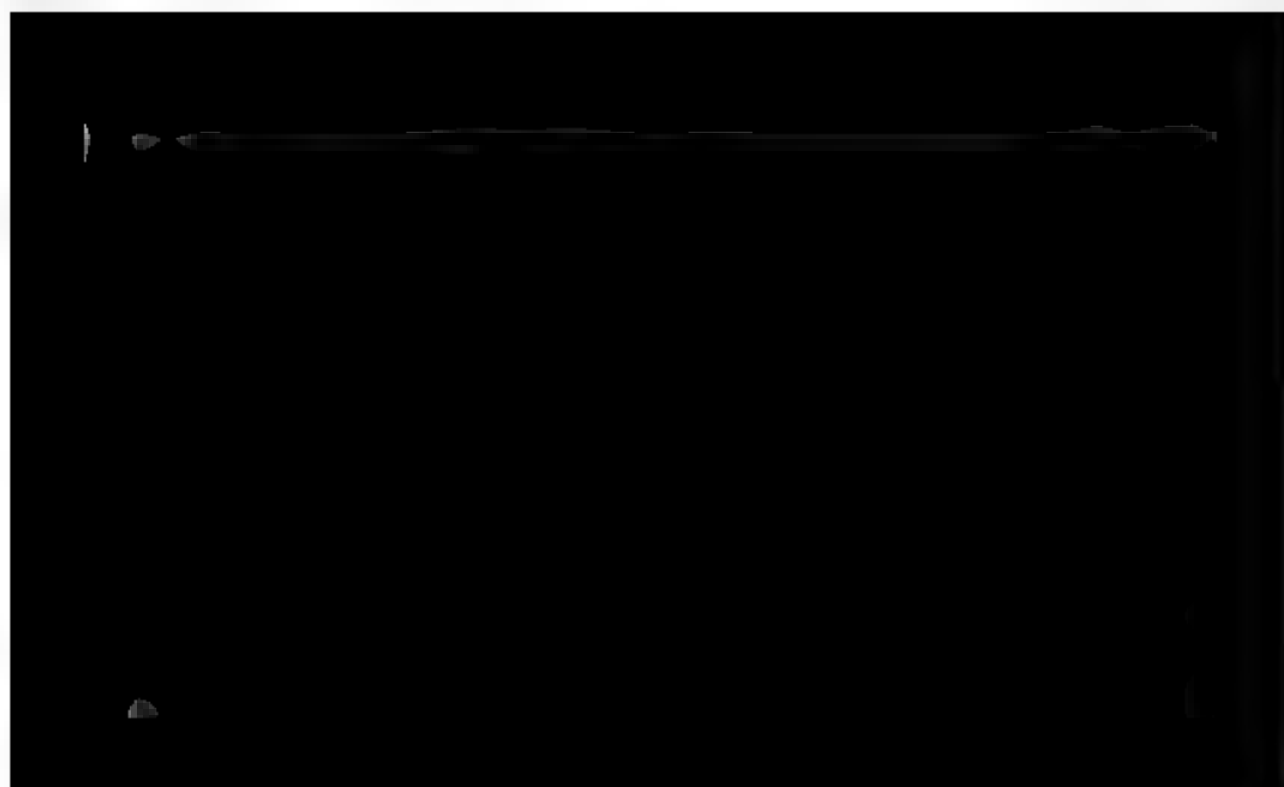
All these plates and spines, massive and powerful as they now are, were in life protected by a thick, horny covering, which must have greatly increased their size and weight. This covering is clearly indicated by the vascular grooves and impressions which mark the surface of both plates and spines, except their bases, which were evidently implanted in the thick skin.

The peculiar group of extinct reptiles named by the writer the *Stegosauria*, of which a typical example is represented in the present restoration, are now so well known, that a more accurate estimate of their relations to other Dinosaurs can be formed than has hitherto been possible. They are evidently a highly specialized sub-order of the great group which has the typical *Ornithopoda* as its most characteristic members, and all doubtless had a common ancestry. Another highly specialized branch of the same great order is seen in the gigantic *Ceratopsia*, of the Cretaceous, which the writer has recently investigated and made known. The skeleton of the latter group presents many interesting points of resemblance to that of the *Stegosauria*, which can hardly be the result of adaptation alone, but the wide difference in the skull and in some other parts indicates that their affinities are remote. A comparison of the present restoration with that of *Triceratops*, recently published by the writer,* will make the contrast between the two forms clearly evident.

All the typical members of the *Stegosauria* are from the Jurassic formation, and the type specimen used in the present restoration was found in Wyoming, in the *Atlantosaurus* beds of the upper Jurassic. *Diracodon*, a genus nearly allied to *Stegosaurus*, occurs in the same horizon. *Omosaurus* of Owen, from the Jurassic of England, is the nearest European ally now known, but whether it possessed a crest of dermal plates like that of *Stegosaurus* is doubtful, although caudal spines were evidently present.

New Haven, Conn., July 15th, 1891.

* This Journal, vol. xli, p. 339, April, 1891.



THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

[THIRD SERIES.]

ART. XVII.—*On the Capture of Comets by Planets, especially their Capture by Jupiter*; by H. A. NEWTON.

1. SOME years ago I obtained and published* a formula expressing in simple terms the total result of the action of a planet in increasing or diminishing the velocity of a comet or small body that passes near the planet. This formula is practically a modification of the integral of energy, the smaller terms in the perturbing function being omitted. A very brief and partial treatment of it was presented to the British Association for the Advancement of Science in 1879 at its Sheffield meeting.† Within the last two or three years several astronomers have made special study of the manner of Jupiter's action in changing the orbits of comets that pass very near him. M. Tisserand has given us an expression connecting the major axis, inclination and parameter of the orbit described before coming near to Jupiter with the corresponding elements of the orbit after leaving the neighborhood of the planet.‡ M. Schulhof has applied the formula of M. Tisserand as a criterion for determining the possible identity of various comets whose orbits pass near to Jupiter's orbit.§ Messrs. Seeliger, Callandreau and others have continued these investigations. The interest thus shown in the problem has led me to resume the study of the subject, and to work out the results of the formula obtained by me in 1878 more fully than they have been hitherto developed.

* This Journal, III, vol. xvi, p. 175, 1878.

† Report, 1879, p. 274.

‡ Sur la théorie de la capture des comètes périodiques, Bull. Astron., Tome vi, juin and juillet, 1889.

§ Notes sur quelques Comètes a courte période, Astron. Nachrichten, No. 2964.

AM. JOUR. SCI.—THIRD SERIES, VOL XLII, No. 249.—SEPTEMBER, 1891.

2. One of the remarkable distinctions between the comets of long (or infinite) periods, and those of short periods, is that the orbits of the latter have almost without exception direct motions and small inclinations to the plane of the ecliptic, while the orbits of the former have all possible inclinations between 0° and 180° . At first sight this seems to imply that the two groups of comets are radically distinct in origin or nature one from the other. The most natural line of investigation therefore is the effect of perturbations in bringing or not bringing the comets to move with the planet after the perturbation.

3. The algebraic processes by which was obtained the formula for the change of energy which a small body experiences from passing near a planet were given in the article cited, and they need not be here reproduced. The following was the resulting equation, viz :

$$\Delta = - \frac{4mfa^2v \cos \varphi \sin \alpha}{pv_0}, \quad (1)$$

and it was obtained from the general differential equations of motion by making assumptions not greatly differing from those used in obtaining Laplace's well known theorem, that a sphere of suitable magnitude may be described about the planet as a center and that for a tolerable first approximation the comet may be regarded as moving when without this sphere in a conic section of which the sun is the focus, and as moving when within the sphere in a conic section (an hyperbola) of which the planet is the focus. In other words, only perturbations of the first order of magnitude are taken account of. A comet is treated throughout this paper as a small indivisible

Let h be the distance which the planet has yet to pass over to reach E when the comet is at A (h may be negative);
 m the mass of the planet, sun's mass=unity;
 a the unit of distance, in general the mean distance of the earth from the sun;
 f the sun's attractive force at the unit of distance;
 v , the planet's velocity in its orbit at E;
 v_0 the comet's velocity in its orbit C when the comet enters the sphere of Jupiter's perceptible influence;
 v the comet's velocity at A relative to the sun;
 $s = v_0 / v$;
 $@_1$ the semi-axis major of \mathcal{C}_1 (negative if \mathcal{C}_1 is an hyperbola);
 $@$ the semi-axis major of \mathcal{C} (negative if \mathcal{C} is an hyperbola);
 p the perpendicular from the planet upon asymptote to C;
 α the acute angle between the transverse axis of C and the asymptote to C.
 φ the angle between the tangent to \mathcal{J} at O (drawn in the direction of the planet's motion) and the line from the planet to the vertices and center of C;
A the semi-transverse axis of C;
B the semi-conjugate axis of C (hence equal to p);
 r the distance of the planet from the sun;
 r_1 the distance of the comet from the sun;
 r_0 the distance of the comet from the planet;
 ρ_1 and ρ distances of the comet from the sun at selected epochs before and after perturbation;
 u_1 and u the velocities of the comet at the selected epochs;
 Δ the increase to which $v^2 - \frac{2fa^2}{r_1} - \frac{2mfa^2}{r_0}$ receives by the planet's action during the whole period in which the comet is passing near to Jupiter.

5. If we assume two epochs, one before and one after the perturbation, at which the comet is equally distant from the planet, the term $2mfa^2/r_0$ is the same at both instants, and it disappears from the value of Δ . Therefore

$$\Delta = u^2 - \frac{2fa^2}{\rho} - u_1^2 + \frac{2fa^2}{\rho_1}.$$

But by the well-known formulas from the law of gravitation,

$$u_1^2 = 2fa^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho_1} - \frac{1}{2@_1} \right),$$

and

$$u^2 = 2fa^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho} - \frac{1}{2@} \right);$$

hence

$$\Delta = fa^2 \left(\frac{1}{@_1} - \frac{1}{@} \right),$$

that is, from (1) $\frac{1}{@_1} - \frac{1}{@} = - \frac{4m \cos \varphi \sin \alpha}{ps}$.

This equation is valid whatever be @ the major axis of the orbit \mathcal{C} , and may be used to determine the major axis of either orbit from the elements of the other. My present purpose is, however, to study the action of Jupiter in changing orbits that are originally parabolas, and hence in general @, will be taken infinite. In that case

$$a_3 = \frac{pe}{4m \cos \varphi \sin \alpha} \quad (2)$$

It will be found that the second number of (2) depends on α , d and h , and these are known quantities when the elements of \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{J} are given. The use of the equation is moreover greatly simplified and enhanced by the fact that the plane of the planet's orbit is involved only in so far as that it must contain the tangent to \mathcal{J} at E.

6. In the second member of (2) all the factors are positive except $\cos \varphi$, hence, if $\varphi < \frac{1}{2}\pi$, @ is positive and the orbit \mathcal{C} is an ellipse; but, if $\varphi > \frac{1}{2}\pi$, @ is negative and \mathcal{C} is an hyperbola. This result may be thus expressed; *if the comet passes in front of Jupiter the kinetic energy of the comet is diminished, if it passes behind the planet the kinetic energy of the comet is increased.* The reason for this may also be given in general language. If the comet passes in front of the planet the comet's attraction increases the velocity, and hence increases the kinetic energy of the planet and *vice versa*. But the total energy of the two bodies is constant; so that when that of the planet is increased, that of the comet is diminished and *vice versa*.

7. It is desirable now to transform the value of @ given in equation (2) so as to be able to determine the major axis of the

planet to move from O towards E we may apply an equal, opposite motion to the comet, and consider the planet to remain at rest at O. Draw AC parallel to EO and make AB equal to the distance described by the planet during the time that the comet is moving from Y to A. Join YB. Then since YA and BA represent in direction and magnitude the motions of the two bodies in a given interval, the third side YB of the triangle represents in magnitude and direction the motion of the comet relative to the planet. The angle YAB is the angle ω , and the three sides of the triangle YA, YB and BA are proportional to v , v_o and v_i . Let the angle YBC be θ ; then from the triangle YAB we have

$$v_o^2 = v_i^2 - 2v_i v \cos \omega + v^2,$$

and
$$v : v_o : v_i :: \sin \theta : \sin (\theta - \omega) : \sin \omega. \quad (3)$$

Since v and v_i can be computed from the given elements of the orbits of the planet and comet, we may readily compute from ω the value of s , or v_o/v_i . But if the planet is at its mean distance from the sun, and the comet's orbit is parabolic, $v^2 = 2v_i^2$, and we have

$$s^2 = 3 - 2\sqrt{2} \cos \omega. \quad (4)$$

Also from the triangle

$$2v_i^2 = v_o^2 + 2v_o v_i \cos \theta + v_i^2,$$

or
$$2s \cos \theta = 1 - s^2. \quad (5)$$

9. *To find p.*—The planet being regarded at rest at O and the *relative* unperturbed motion of the comet being along YB, this line may within admissible limits of error be treated as one asymptote of the relative orbit C. The perpendicular from O upon YB will then be by definition (Art. 4) the line p . Draw OX from O perpendicular to OY and OE, and let these three lines be coördinate axes. Let the line AB meet the plane XOY in C. Join OC, let fall OD perpendicular to YB, and join CD. Since EA is perpendicular to AY and also to EO, and so to its parallel line AC, therefore it is perpendicular to the plane YAC. Hence OC, parallel to EA is perpendicular to the plane, and so perpendicular to CD. Again CDY is a right angle; for $OD^2 + DY^2 = OY^2 = OC^2 + CY^2$, and $OD^2 = OC^2 + DC^2$. Hence $DC^2 + DY^2 = CY^2$, and consequently CDY is a right angle.

The quantity h is the line BC; for h is the distance which the planet, when the comet is at A, has yet to pass over before reaching E. But the comet was at Y when the planet was at O, and the planet describes BA, while the comet describes YA, leaving BC as the distance yet to be described or h . But the angle CBD is θ , so that we have

$$p^2 = OD^2 = OC^2 + CD^2 = d^2 + h^2 \sin^2 \theta. \quad (6)$$

10. *To find α .*—The angle α is the acute angle between the asymptote and the transverse axis of the hyperbola, and hence from the nature of the hyperbola $\tan \alpha = B/A$. By known formulas we have, if the planet is at its mean distance

$$v_i^2 = 2fa^2\left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{2a}\right),$$

$$v_o^2 = 2mfa^2\left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{2A}\right).$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Therefore} \quad \frac{v_o^2}{v_i^2} = \frac{mr}{A}, \text{ or } A = \frac{mr}{s^2} \\ \text{Hence from (6)} \quad \tan \alpha = \frac{B}{A} = \frac{p}{A} = \frac{s^2(a^2 + h^2 \sin^2 \theta)}{mr} \end{array} \right\} \quad (5)$$

11. *To find φ .*—The orbit of the comet relative to Jupiter lies in the plane YOB. Let i be the inclination of the plane YOB to YOX, measured positive from x positive to z positive; let l be the longitude of the direction YC, measured in the plane YOX from OY, that is, the angle made by YC with OY produced; let λ be the longitude of the direction YB measured in the plane YOB from OY, that is, the angle made by YB with OY produced. Imagine now a sphere described about Y as a center that shall cut the three planes XOY, BOY and BCY in three sides of a right angled spherical triangle. The hypotenuse of this triangle is λ , the base l , the perpendicular $\frac{1}{2}\pi - \theta$, and the angle opposite to the perpendicular is i ; hence we have

$$\cos \lambda = \cos l \sin \theta, \quad (8)$$

$$\cos \theta = \sin i \sin \lambda, \quad (9)$$

$$\sin i = \sin l \tan \theta. \quad (10)$$

that are not serious would make it applicable without these limitations. The quantities in the several equations may be regarded as having values:—

$$\begin{aligned} d & \text{ positive,} \\ h & \text{ positive or negative,} \\ \alpha & \text{ positive and less than } \frac{1}{2}\pi, \\ \omega, \theta, \varphi \text{ and } i & \text{ positive and less than } \pi, \\ l \text{ and } \lambda & \text{ positive and less than } 2\pi. \end{aligned}$$

13. We may, however, also find directly the value of @ in terms of d , h , and the known functions of ω .

From (12)

$$\cos \varphi \sin \alpha = \sin i \sin \lambda \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \pm \sin i \cos \lambda \sin^2 \alpha.$$

From (7)

$$\cos \alpha \sin \alpha = \frac{AB}{A^2 + B^2}, \text{ and } \sin^2 \alpha = \frac{B^2}{A^2 + B^2}.$$

From (10) and (8)

$$\sin i \cos \lambda = \pm \frac{\cos l \sin \theta}{(1 + \sin^2 l \tan^2 \theta)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \pm \frac{\cot l \sin \theta}{(\sec^2 \theta + \cot^2 l)^{\frac{1}{2}}},$$

hence from (6) and (11)

$$\sin i \cos \lambda = \pm \frac{h \sin^2 \theta}{(d^2 + h^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \pm \frac{h \sin^2 \theta}{B}.$$

From these and (9)

$$\cos \varphi \sin \alpha (A^2 + B^2) = AB \cos \theta \pm hB \sin^2 \theta,$$

and hence from (2)

$$@ = \frac{s}{4m} \cdot \frac{A^2 + B^2}{A \cos \theta \pm h \sin^2 \theta} = \frac{s}{4m} \cdot \frac{A^2 + d^2 + h^2 \sin^2 \theta}{A \cos \theta \pm h \sin^2 \theta} \quad (13)$$

Since m is the known mass of the planet, and θ , s and A are known functions of ω , equation (13) gives directly the value of @, the semi-axis major of the new orbit \mathfrak{C} in terms of d , h and ω .

14. For a particular case of approach, equation (13) is convenient for computation. We may, however, now treat d , h and ω as independent variables whose varying values may express all the different possible cases of approach of the comet to the planet so far as change of periodic time of the comet is concerned. The dependence of @ upon the *three* variables cannot be very easily represented graphically in a single plane diagram. But by giving to ω successive values in multiples of 10° , viz: $\omega = 10^\circ, 20^\circ, 30^\circ$, etc., to 170° , I have prepared a series of diagrams to exhibit in each case in succession the relation of @ to the other two variables. The values of θ , s and A for the several values of ω were needed in making the diagrams and they are given in Table I. Equations (4), (5)

and (7) are used in making the table. The disturbing planet is assumed to be Jupiter, so that m was taken equal to $1/1050$ and $r=5.2$.

TABLE I.

| ω | θ | | s | A | ω | θ | | s | A |
|----------|----------|----|-------|--------|----------|----------|-----|-------|--------|
| 0° | 0° | 0' | 0.414 | ·02886 | 100° | 131° | 48' | 1.777 | ·00142 |
| 10 | 32 | 1 | 0.463 | ·02309 | 110 | 138 | 9 | 1.992 | ·00125 |
| 20 | 55 | 47 | 0.585 | ·01448 | 120 | 144 | 21 | 2.101 | ·00112 |
| 30 | 72 | 22 | 0.742 | ·00900 | 130 | 150 | 26 | 2.195 | ·00103 |
| 40 | 84 | 46 | 0.913 | ·00594 | 140 | 156 | 26 | 2.273 | ·00096 |
| 50 | 94 | 47 | 1.087 | ·00419 | 150 | 162 | 22 | 2.334 | ·00091 |
| 60 | 103 | 27 | 1.259 | ·00312 | 160 | 168 | 16 | 2.379 | ·00088 |
| 70 | 111 | 14 | 1.426 | ·00244 | 170 | 174 | 8 | 2.405 | ·00086 |
| 80 | 118 | 27 | 1.584 | ·00197 | 180 | 180 | 0 | 2.414 | ·00085 |
| 90 | 125 | 16 | 1.732 | ·00165 | | | | | |

15. Using these values of θ , s and A we may now represent graphically the dependence of $@$ upon the other two variables d and h for each specified value of ω . Let d and h be Cartesian coördinates, then for each point of the coördinate plane there is a value of $@$. The ambiguous sign will be fully satisfied by giving positive and negative values to h . For an assumed value of $@$ we shall have a curve whose equation is (13), and each point of this curve represents values of d and h for which the total action of the planet upon the comet will be to reduce the energy of the comet a constant amount. This locus will be called an *isergonal* curve.

16. *Faisceau of isergonal ellipses.*—The equation (13) of the isergonal curve may be written

ellipse. The ratio of the axes being $1 : \sin \theta$, and As' being $=mr$, the area of the ellipse will be equal to

$$\frac{4\pi m^2 @^2}{s^2 \sin \theta} \left(1 - \left(\cos \theta - \frac{r}{2as} \right)^2 \right).$$

18. *Maximum action of the planet.*—For two particular values of $@$ the isergonal ellipses become points. These values of $@$ result if the maximum effect of the planet in increasing and in decreasing the energy of the comet takes place, and they are obtained by making the two values of h equal to each other in (14), that is, by making $\cos \theta - \frac{As}{2m@} = \pm 1$. Since at the same time $h=2m@/s$, we obtain

$$h = \frac{A}{\cos \theta \pm 1}, \quad \text{and} \quad @ = \frac{As}{2m(\cos \theta \pm 1)}. \quad (15)$$

Let h' and h'' , and $@'$ and $@''$ be the positive and negative values of h and $@$ in (15) and we may construct the following table of their values. As in Table I Jupiter is assumed to be the perturbing planet.

TABLE II.

| ω | h' | h'' | $@'$ | $@''$ | ω | h' | h'' | $@'$ | $@''$ |
|-----------|--------|----------|------|------------|-------------|----------|----------|----------|--------|
| 0° | ·01443 | α | 3·14 | — α | 100° | ·00426 | — ·00085 | 4·17 | — 0·83 |
| 10 | ·01250 | — ·15174 | 3·04 | — 36·90 | 110 | ·00489 | — ·00072 | 5·12 | — 0·75 |
| 20 | ·00927 | — ·03307 | 2·85 | — 10·15 | 120 | ·00598 | — ·00062 | 6·60 | — 0·68 |
| 30 | ·00690 | — ·01290 | 2·69 | — 5·03 | 130 | ·00789 | — ·00055 | 9·09 | — 0·63 |
| 40 | ·00544 | — ·00654 | 2·61 | — 3·13 | 140 | ·01149 | — ·00050 | 13·71 | — 0·60 |
| 50 | ·00457 | — ·00287 | 2·61 | — 2·21 | 150 | ·01934 | — ·00047 | 23·70 | — 0·57 |
| 60 | ·00407 | — ·00253 | 2·69 | — 1·68 | 160 | ·04192 | — ·00044 | 52·36 | — 0·55 |
| 70 | ·00382 | — ·00179 | 2·86 | — 1·34 | 170 | ·16336 | — ·00043 | 206·30 | — 0·54 |
| 80 | ·00377 | — ·00134 | 3·14 | — 1·11 | 180 | α | — ·00043 | α | — 0·54 |
| 90 | ·00390 | — ·00105 | 3·55 | — 0·95 | | | | | |

19. *Explanation of Table II.*—The meaning of the numbers in this table may be explained by an example. If a comet moving in a parabola passes near to Jupiter, and the directions of the two original motions at nearest points of the orbits make an angle of 10° , then the greatest action of Jupiter (during the whole period of transit) in diminishing the velocity of the comet in its orbit about the sun will take place if the two orbits actually intersect ($d=0$), and if the comet in its unperturbed orbit arrives first at the point of intersection at the instant when Jupiter is distant therefrom ·01250 (the earth's mean distance from the sun being unity). The resulting semi-axis major of the comet's orbit about the sun will be 3·04.

On the other hand, the greatest effect in increasing the velocity of the comet will take place when the two orbits

actually intersect, and the comet in its unperturbed orbit reaches the point of intersection later than the planet and when the planet is distant therefrom 0.15174. The semi-transverse axis of the resulting hyperbolic orbit about the sun will be 36.90.

20. *Resulting orbits of maximum perturbation.*—The position of the relative orbit about Jupiter in these cases of maximum perturbation for given values of ω is easily determined. From the equations (7), (6) and (15)

$$\tan \alpha = B/A = h \sin \theta / A = \sin \theta / (\cos \theta \pm 1).$$

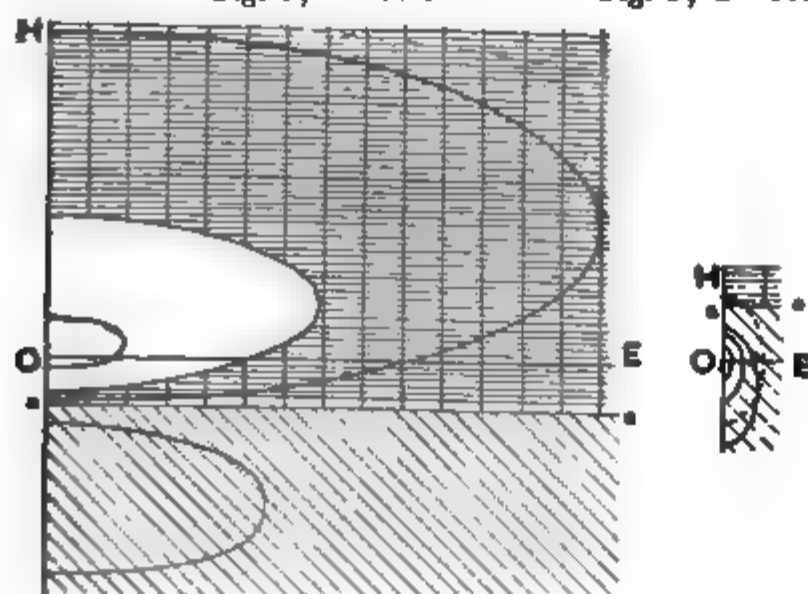
The positive sign gives $2\alpha = \theta$, and the negative sign gives $2\alpha = \pi + \theta$. But the angle 2α in the first case is the angle of the asymptotes enclosing the branch of the hyperbola described about Jupiter by the comet. Since the two original orbits intersect, the plane of the relative orbit contains the planet's path, so that the comet passes directly in front of the planet and being turned backward leaves Jupiter exactly in the direction of Jupiter's quit.* The place of encounter with Jupiter will be near an apse of the comet's resulting orbit about the sun. The comet leaves the planet with the relative velocity v_0 , so that if $\kappa < 1$ the motion about the sun in the new orbit will be direct; if $\kappa > 1$ the motion in the new orbit will be retrograde. That is, by (4) when $\omega < \frac{1}{2}\pi$ the resulting motion is direct; when $\omega > \frac{1}{2}\pi$ the resulting motion is retrograde.

In the second case the angle 2α , being greater than 180° , stands for the angle between the asymptotes exterior to the orbit. Hence the comet passing behind the planet will be turned forward and will leave the planet in the direction of Jupiter's goal, and have a velocity that will send it permanently out of the solar system.

point of intersection at the instant when the planet's distance therefrom is equal to the planet's distance from the sun multiplied by the ratio of the mass of the planet to the mass of the sun.

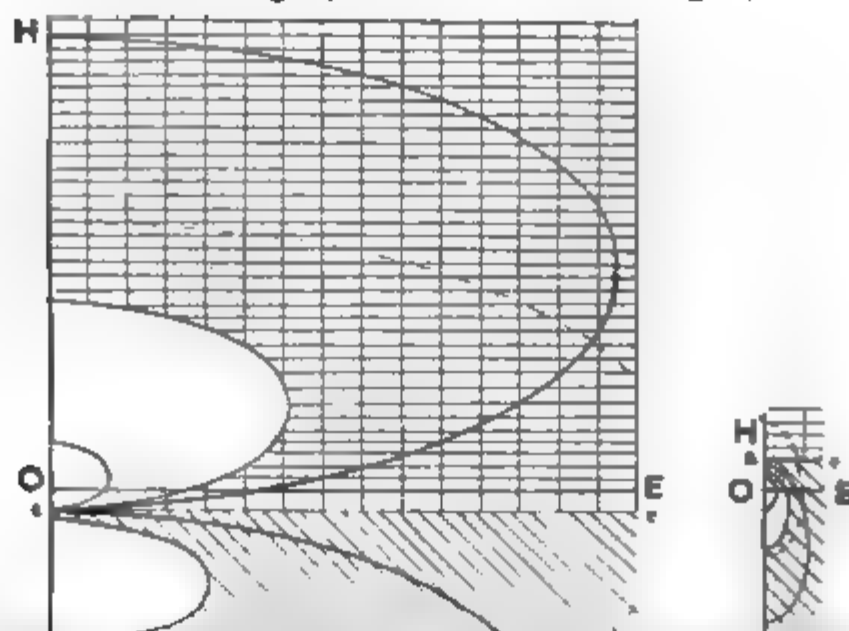
The relative velocity of the comet on leaving the planet's sphere of action would be equal to and directly opposite to the planet's velocity ($s=1$), and the comet would be left entirely at rest to fall to the sun. This case could not happen for planets like the earth where mr is less than the semi-diameter of the planet. In the case of the earth mr is less than 300 miles, and actual collision would result. But for Jupiter mr is greater than the distance of the second satellite from the planet. The nearest approach of the comet to the planet would be $mr(\sqrt{2}-1)$ which is more than four times the radius of Jupiter. Hence this case of maximum diminution of major axis could occur near Jupiter.

Fig. 2; $\omega=10^\circ$.

Fig. 3; $\omega=170^\circ$.


22. *Isergonal ellipse for $\omega=10^\circ$.*—If we make $\omega=10^\circ$ the vanishing points of the isergonal ellipses will be (Table II) at $d=0$, $h=.01250$, and $d=0$, $h=-.15174$. In fig. 2 let OE and OH be the axes of d and h respectively. The vanishing points will be on the axis OH at distances h' and h'' above and below O. Upon this diagram are shown the halves of four isergonal ellipses. The scales used for d and h are not equal to each other, since the use of the same scale for both coördinates would make the figures of inconvenient shape. In this, and in all the figures 2-18, the unit in d is to the unit in h , as 1 to $\sin \omega$. But to indicate more clearly this scale, and at the same time to give a kind of shading to a part of the area, there are drawn above the radical axis ae lines parallel to OE, and parallel to OH, at intervals of .01; that is, the sides of each of the small rectangles in the quadrant HOE are .01, or about

925,000 miles. Only the positive values of d are represented in the figures. The positive vanishing point being 1.250 of these divisions above O, and the negative vanishing point 15,174 below O, we lay off $Oa = \frac{1}{2}(h' + h'') = -6.962$ divisions, and draw ae for the radical axis. The smallest positive value of $@$ is (Table II) 3.04. As $@$ increases from 3.04 the ellipse increases in size, and the innermost curve represents what it becomes when $@=5$. The second curve (separating the blank and shaded areas) corresponds to $@=20$. Any parabolic comet passing Jupiter with an original angle of $\omega=10^\circ$, and having d and h such as to be represented by a point within the blank area of fig. 2 will leave the vicinity of the planet in an elliptic orbit whose semi-axis major is less than 20, and whose period therefore is less than 90 years.

Fig. 4; $\omega=20^\circ$.Fig. 5; $\omega=160^\circ$.

23. *Isorgonal ellipses for $\omega=170^\circ$.*—In figure 8 are drawn the three ellipses corresponding to the values of $@$, -5 , -20 , and -50 . The ellipses above ae do not appear, inasmuch as the smallest possible elliptic orbit has a semi-axis major of 206.3 (Table II), and a period of about 3000 years. The radial axis ae is .08146 (or over 8 divisions) above OE.

24. Figures 4 and 5 are like diagrams for $\omega=20^\circ$ and $\omega=160^\circ$. With altered numbers the explanations of arts. 22 and 23 apply with slight change to these figures. The line ae in figs. 4 and 5 is nearer to OE than is the same line in figs. 2 and 3. In

Fig. 6; $\omega=30^\circ$.

Fig. 7; $\omega=150$.

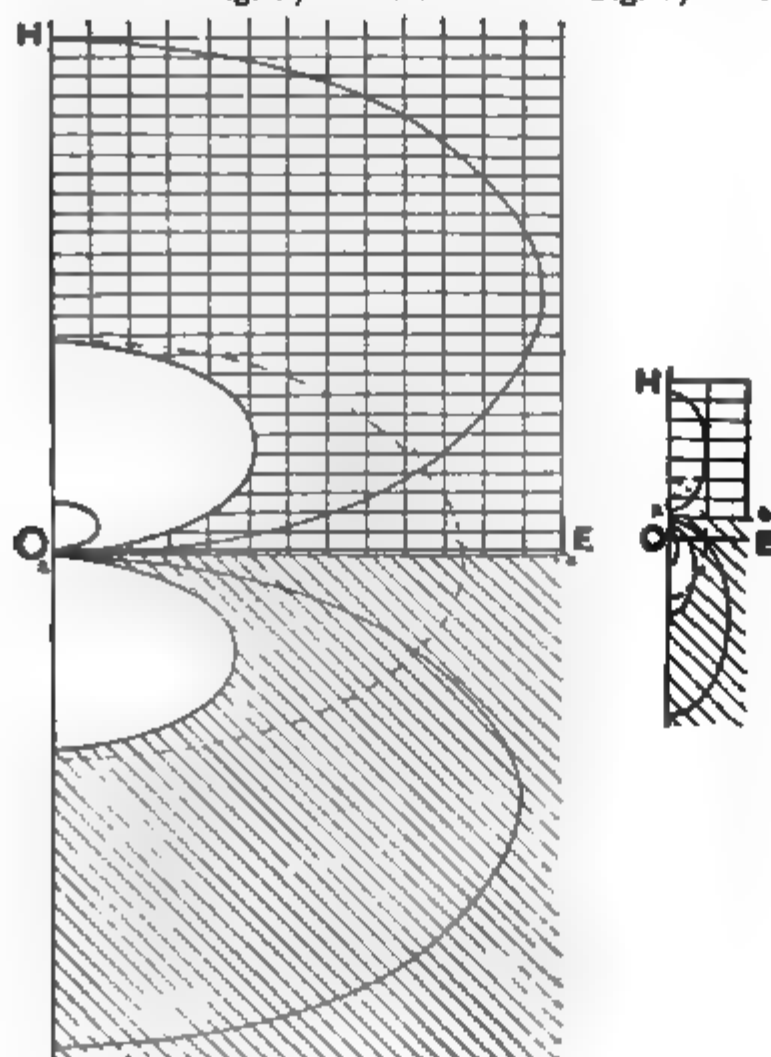


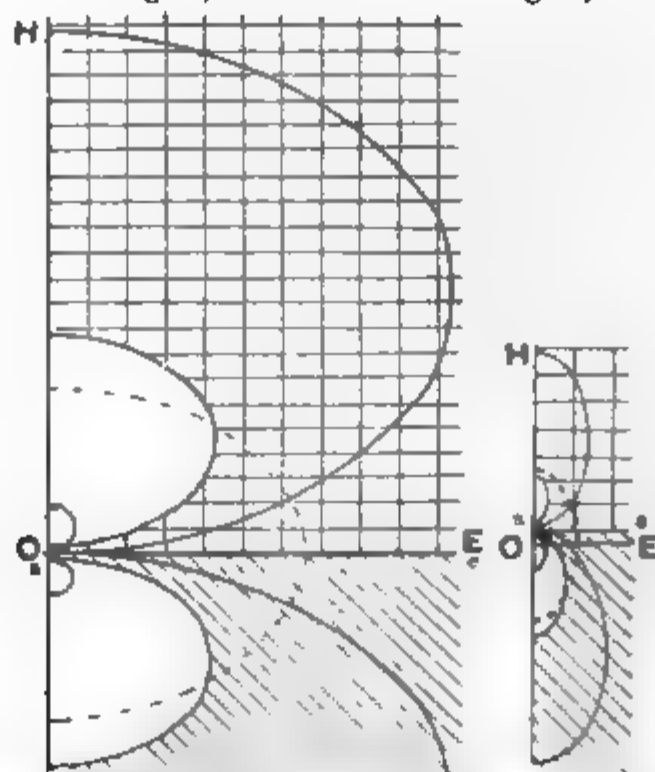
fig. 4 the line for $@=-20$ appears below ae , while above ae are the three curves for $+5$, $+20$, and $+50$, respectively. In fig. 5 the ellipse for $@=50$ is wanting since the minimum ellipse has a semi-axis major 52.36 (Table II), while below ae the three curves are present.

In figures 6 and 7 are contrasted in like manner the isorgonal curves for the angles $\omega=30$, and $\omega=\text{the supplement of } 30^\circ$. In fig. 6 the curve $@=-5$ is wanting, and in fig. 7 the two curves $@=5$, and $@=20$ are both wanting.

In like manner are to be explained the figs. 8-18. The numbers needed for drawing the figures are furnished by equa-

tion (13). The curves that in each figure separate the shaded area from the non-shaded area are the ellipses for $a=20$, and $a=-20$. The shading is introduced in order to compare more readily the corresponding curves in the figures.

25. The dotted curve in the several figures represents those values of d and h for which the total change of direction in the relative orbit is 10° ; that is, $\alpha=85^\circ$. It is that curve whose equation is $A \tan 85^\circ = B$, or $d^2 + h^2 \sin^2 \theta = A^2 \tan^2 85^\circ$. It is therefore an ellipse whose center is the origin of coördinates, and it is similar in each figure to the isergonal ellipses

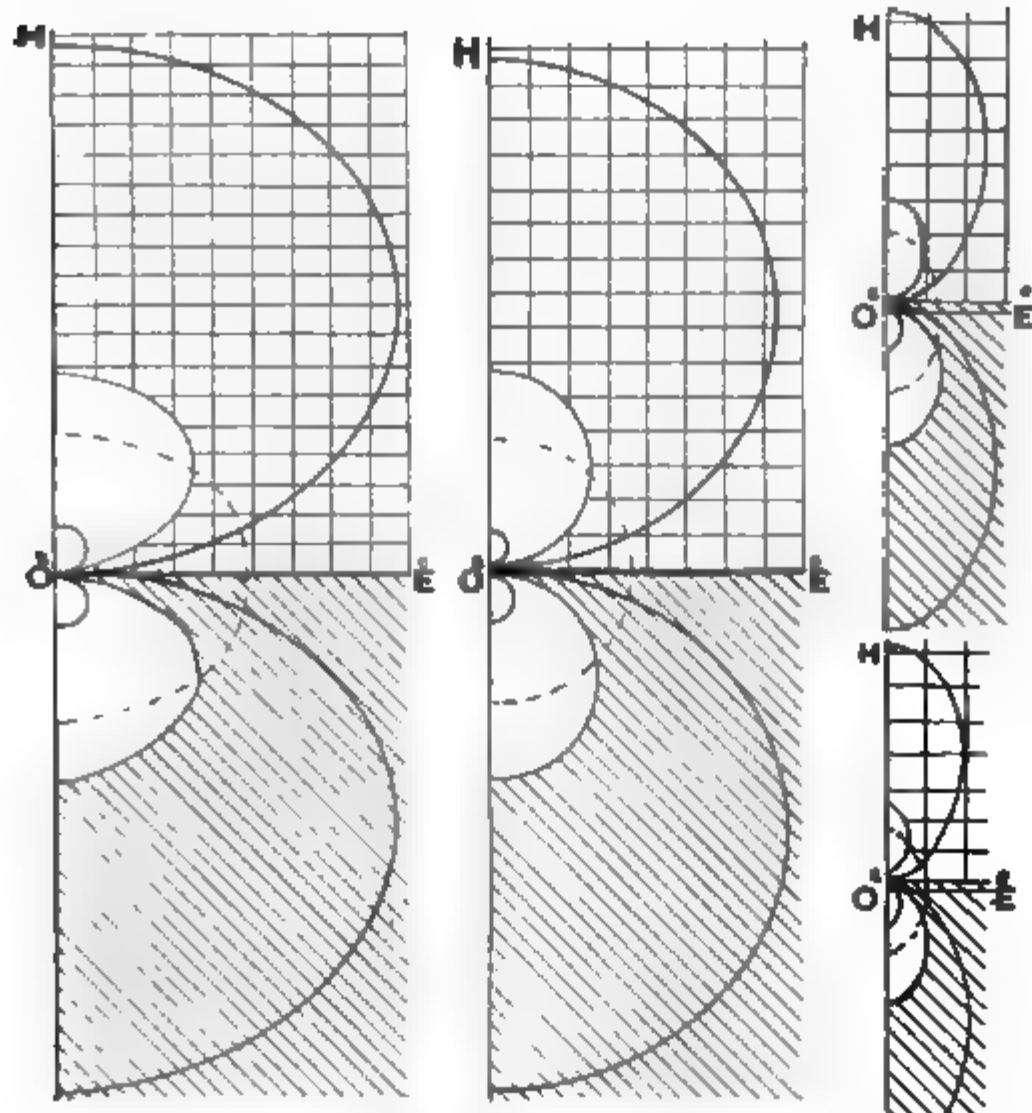
Fig. 8; $\omega=40^\circ$.Fig. 9; $\omega=140$.

If about the sun as a center a sphere \mathcal{S} be described with an arbitrary radius r , it will be *assumed* that near the surface of \mathcal{S} , space is filled equably with comets. We may express this by supposing that in each cubic unit of space near \mathcal{S} , there are at each and every instant n comets. As the orbits are all assumed to be parabolic, the n comets have a common velocity v .

Fig. 10; $\omega = 50^\circ$.

Fig. 12; $\omega = 60$.

Fig. 13; $\omega = 120^\circ$.
Fig. 11; $\omega = 130$.

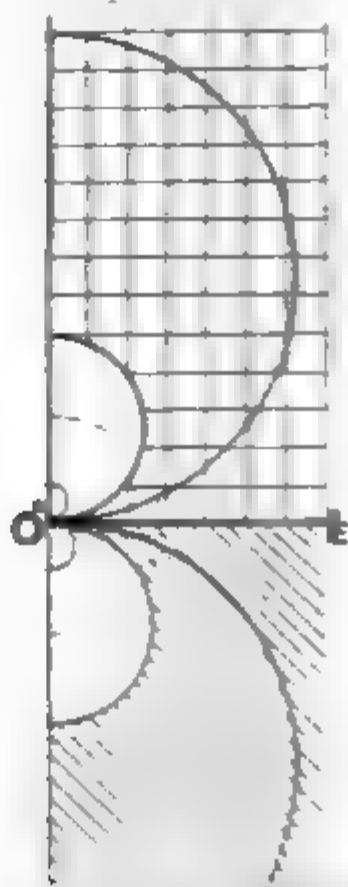
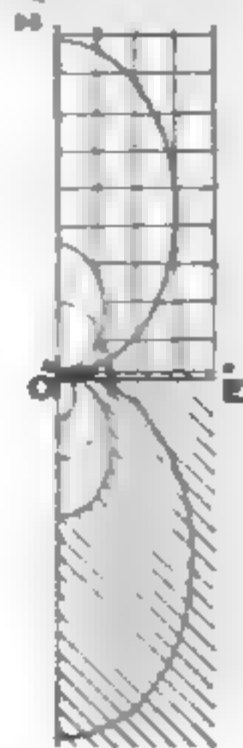


It will be furthermore *assumed* that the directions of the comets in each cubic unit of space near \mathcal{S} are at random, that is, that the quits and goals of the comet's motions relative to the sun are distributed equably over the surface of the celestial sphere.

27. *Number of comets entering \mathcal{S} .*—If about a normal to \mathcal{S} as an axis there be described two cones cutting the celestial sphere in two small circles distant from the point where the normal meets the celestial sphere ψ and $\psi + d\psi$, then of the n comets there will be $\frac{1}{2}n \sin \psi d\psi$ comets whose quits are between the two circles. Each of these comets will move perpendicularly to the spherical surface \mathcal{S} with the velocity

$e \cos \psi$. Hence in a unit of time $\frac{1}{2} \pi e \cos \psi \sin \psi d\psi$ will cross a unit of the surface S going towards U . The total entering the sphere in the unit of time will number multiplied by the number of units in the sur S , or

$$\frac{1}{2} \pi e \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos \psi \sin \psi d\psi = \pi a e r^2.$$

Fig. 14. $u=79$.

Fig. 15. $u=110$.


nal between ψ and $\psi + d\psi$, have perihelion distances between q and $q + dq$. Hence N may also represent the number of comets that in the given period of time pass their perihelion and whose perihelion distances are less than q . Therefore N is a constant, and we conclude that if comets be grouped according to their perihelion distances the number of comets whose perihelion distances are less than q is proportional to q .

Fig. 16; $\omega = 80^\circ$.

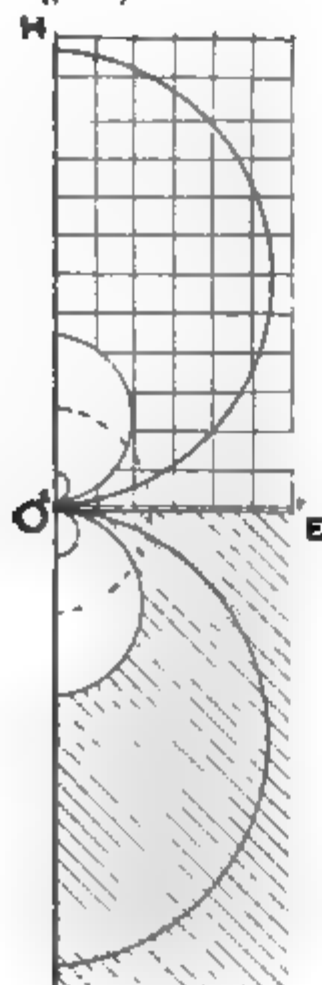


Fig. 17; $\omega = 90^\circ$.

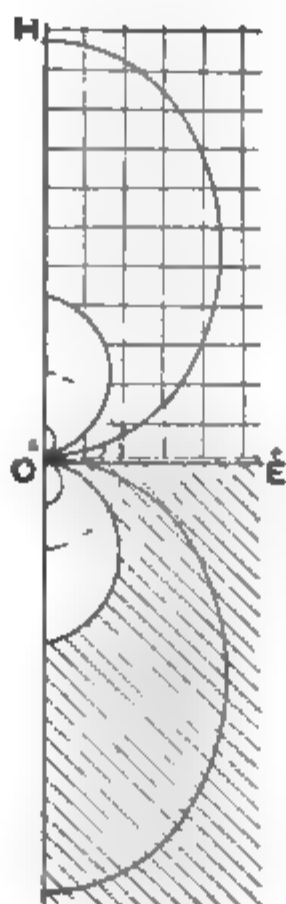
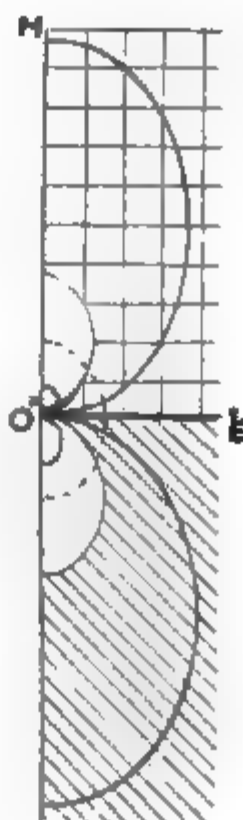


Fig. 18; $\omega = 100^\circ$.



9. It follows as a corollary to art. 28 that if the two assumptions of art. 26 be made for the spherical surface the like distributions are true for every smaller concentric spherical surface. It would be but a reasonable extension of assumptions to make them apply to larger spheres, if finite.

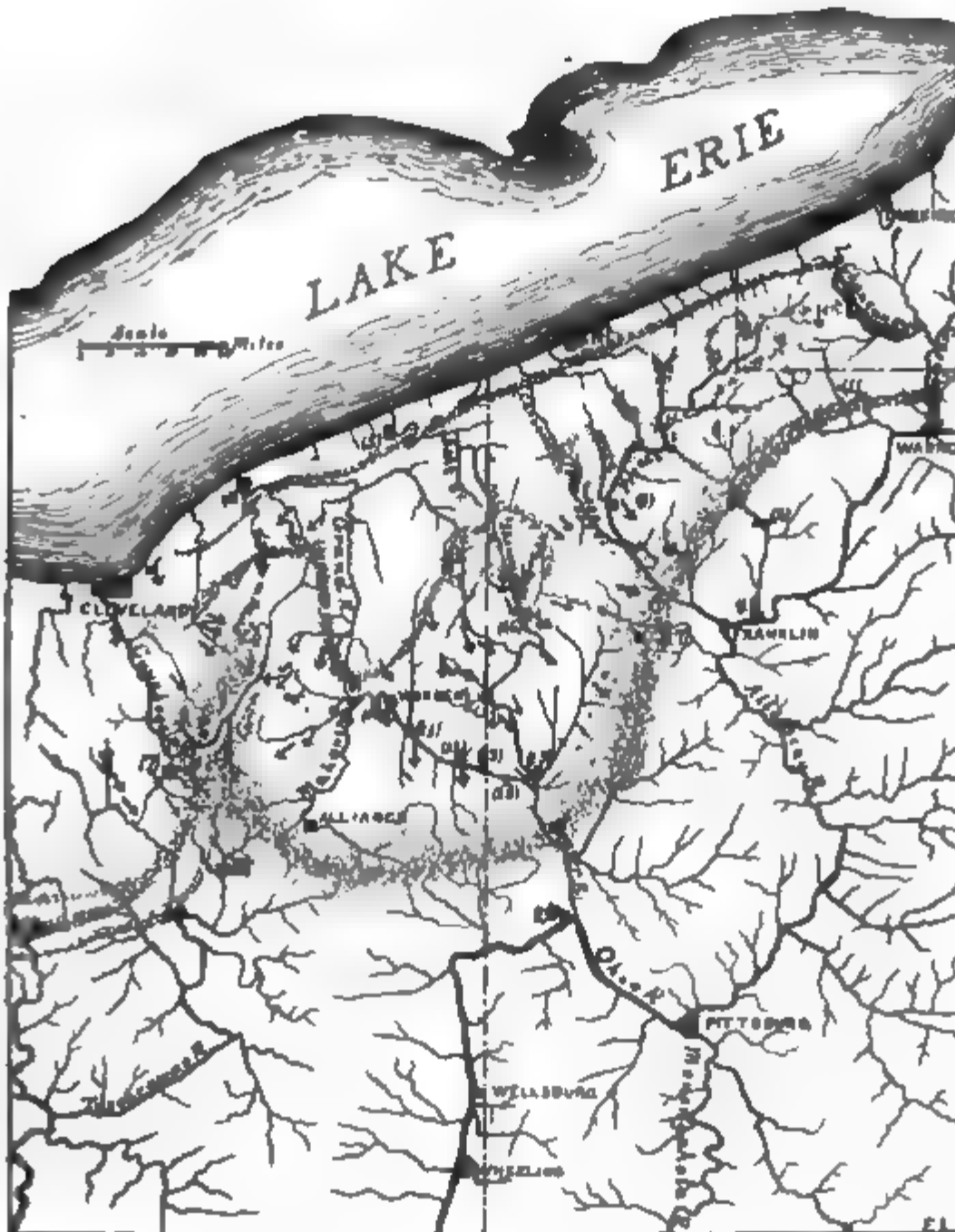
[To be continued.]

ART. XVIII.—*Pleistocene Fluvial Planes of Western Pennsylvania*; by FRANK LEVERETT.

IN the November number of this Journal there appeared a paper by Mr. P. Max Foshay, entitled "Preglacial Drainage and Recent Geological History of Western Pennsylvania," in which certain views are expressed which do not seem consistent with facts in my possession; and in which, although valuable suggestions are made regarding the possibilities of changes in drainage which the region may have undergone since the beginning of the glacial period, adequate data are not presented to sustain the broad and positive conclusions drawn. It therefore seems important that the subject be further considered and that attention be called to facts which render the problem more complex and its solution less certain than the paper leaves the readers to suppose.

A few general statements respecting the fluvial planes of the region (following essentially President Chamberlin*) will aid in showing the bearing of the facts I wish to present. In the district immediately southeast of the drift-covered portion of western Pennsylvania there are three well-developed fluvial planes distinct from the present flood-planes of the streams, representing as many distinct episodes in recent geological history. The lowest fluvial plane is the rock floor of the valleys, which in much of the region is at a lower level than the beds of the present streams. The middle fluvial plane is represented by the moraine-headed terraces which take their rise in the bulky outer moraine of the "Grand River lobe." These

fluvial planes as late as the early glacial period. His observations together with the earlier ones of Dr. H. M. Chance of the Pennsylvania Geological Survey, are to the effect that



Explanation of Map.—The shaded portions represent moraines. Their mapping is complete only between the Cuyahoga river and Lake Chautauqua. Striae are represented by arrows and indicate the general divergence from the axes of the lobes. The numbers indicate villages and cities as follows: (1) Lottsville, Penn.; (2) Titusville, Penn.; (3) Meadville, Penn.; (4) Erie, Penn.; (5) Ashtabula, O.; (6) Painesville, O.; (7) Akron, O.; (8) Canton, O.; (9) Braceville, O.; (10) Leavittsburg, O.; (11) Niles, O.; (12) Youngstown, O.; (13) Lowellville, O.; (14) Edenburg, Penn.; (15) Newcastle, Pa.; (16) Greenville, Pa.; (17) Raymilton, Penn.; (18) Oil City, Penn.; (19) Beaver, Penn.

fluvial material containing crystalline erratics of Canadian derivation occurs along the Allegheny river on this terrace. This determination is of great importance since it brings all

the erosion of the lower 300 feet of the Allegheny valley within the earlier glacial and the interglacial epoch, and throws doubt upon the preglacial age of the buried channels, although they are plainly older than the moraine-headed terraces of this region.

The fact that the Allegheny and Monongahela river-beds had become coated to considerable depth with fluvial debris (40 ft. \pm) by the close of the earlier glacial period is evidence that the streams had reached a base level at a still earlier date, and makes it probable, though not demonstrative, that the excavation to the level of the upper rock plane of the several lines of drainage which subsequently united to form the Allegheny was preglacial. If not preglacial, it must have been accomplished during the earlier part of the first glacial epoch.

In Mr. Foshay's paper the high level terrace along the Beaver river is discussed as "an old base-level plane," and Professor I. C. White, in his report on Beaver County, Pennsylvania, calls it the "fourth terrace."*

It has been identified by these writers as far north as the mouth of the Connoquenessing where the terminal moraine of the later drift lies upon it. Mr. Foshay calls attention to the important fact that this terrace has a northward descent from the mouth of Beaver river to the terminal moraine, and President Chamberlin has shown that the high terrace of the lower Allegheny and the Monongahela descends with the present streams to their junction not far above the mouth of the Beaver river; all of which evidence favors the hypothesis that the lower factors of the Allegheny river and the Monongahela discharged toward the Lake Erie basin along the course

Beaver river route will be strong. If high-level terraces occur, as they doubtless do, on the Ohio between the mouth of the Beaver and Wellsburg, West Virginia, the supposed old divide, and these terraces *decline toward the mouth of the Beaver*, i. e. *contrary to the present stream*, then the demonstration that the old course was to the north through the Beaver valley will be essentially complete.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Foshay, who is practically on the ground, will pursue to a demonstration the hypothesis he has already rendered so highly probable.

As to the course which this old river pursued north of the moraine on the Beaver (assuming that it took this course)—whether along the present route of the Mahoning or that of the Shenango—there seems to be no demonstrative evidence. None of Mr. Foshay's data bear definitely on this point. The Shenango valley all the way from its mouth, 7–8 miles north of where the high-terrace is lost under the moraine, to the Pymatuning swamp on the Erie divide where it connects with the valley of Ashtabula creek flowing into Lake Erie, is broader than that of the Mahoning from its mouth to the Erie divide near Warren, Ohio; its bluffs are less abrupt and its general aspect that of a valley older as well as larger than that of the Mahoning. Moreover the lower Mahoning valley becomes very narrow in the vicinity of Lowellville, Ohio, having abrupt bluffs with a breadth at base of but about one fourth mile, which is too narrow to make it probable that it is a continuation of the old river under consideration, whose breadth above is much greater and whose slopes are more worn and receding. The narrowing at this point fits well the hypothesis that here was the preglacial divide between a stream running northwest into the Grand river basin and one running southeast to join the old river under discussion at the present mouth of the Mahoning. Furthermore, the main preglacial valley of the Grand river basin seems to have entered, not from the southeast along the lower Mahoning but from the south along the upper Mahoning from the direction of Alliance, Ohio, there being a comparatively low belt several miles wide along the upper (north flowing) part of the Mahoning, with low bluffs and a gradual rise both to the east and the west of the river. The relative elevations of the present divides on the Mahoning and Shenango routes respectively, do not help us much in this question, since, in the first place, we cannot trace, or at least have not traced, the terraces which mark the old river bed,—the present surface divide and the present rock divide being matters of more recent formation—and, in the second place, an eastward differential uplift is known to have taken place. The uplift referred to is well shown by the

highest of the beaches in the eastern part of the expanded Lake Erie. This beach is fully 80 feet higher immediately north of Chautauqua lake than it is at the Grand river basin. Since this amount of differential uplift has occurred during the short time since the lake occupied this beach, it becomes necessary to allow for even greater changes either of depression or of uplift in the much longer period that has elapsed since the high-level terraces along the streams of western Pennsylvania were formed.

On the whole, therefore, the balance of evidence favors the Shenango as against the Mahoning route, but the question is still an open one. The definite conclusions of Mr. Foshay supported by map and proposed name do not seem to be warranted by the present state of evidence, or even to represent the probabilities of the case.

Interglacial valleys (Buried channels).—As the high-level base-plane has been demonstrably connected with the earlier glacial epoch by Dr. Chance and President Chamberlin, the channels cut in it are obviously of later age; and it is important that the existing broad distinction between the interglacial and preglacial channels of this region be kept in mind; the preglacial channels have, so far as yet identified, a fluvial plane far above that of the present streams, while the interglacial channels have a rock floor in large part below the present streams.

The study of the profiles of the valley floors within this drift-covered region, when combined with an attempt to restore former systems of drainage, is calculated to impress one with the fragmentary nature of available evidence. It is true that portions of Big Sandy, Oil and French creeks and of



Mahoning or the Shenango that reveal a rock surface so low as that near the junction of these streams, as may be seen from the following table which represents the deepest borings of which I have knowledge.

Table showing principal borings along the Mahoning-Grand River route.

| Location. | Distance. | Altitude. | Drift. | Rock floor. | Authority. |
|-----------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|------------|
| Lawrence Junct., Pa. | 0 miles. | 760 feet. | 150 feet. | 610 feet. | White. |
| Edenburg, Pa. | 4.6 " | 790 " | 200 ? " | 580 ? " | " |
| State Line, O. and Pa. | 9 " | 810 " | 80 " | 730 " | Newberry. |
| Lowellville, O. | 10.3 " | 826 " | ? " | ? " | |
| Haselton, near Youngstown.. | 15.6 " | 831 " | 90 " | 741 " | Foshay * |
| Niles, O. | 26 " | 854 " | 190 " | 674 " | " * |
| Near Southington, O. | 40 " | 870 " | 222 + " | 648 — " | Leverett. |
| Mesopotamia, O. | 47 " | 850 " | 208 ? " | 642 ? " | " |
| Near Rome..... | 57.5 " | 820 " | 170 + " | 650 — " | " |

* Given in letter to the writer.

The thickness of drift at Edenburg is a disputed question, some citizens maintaining that the greatest amount penetrated was 140 feet where the level of the well-mouth was 12-20 feet above the river, while others hold the opinion that the drift extends about 200 feet below the river. The borings were made nearly thirty years ago, and no records are known to have been preserved, consequently much allowance should be made for inaccuracies. It may be necessary to add 75 feet to denote the true altitude of the rock floor at this point. However, as there is a possibility that the rock floor is as low as indicated I leave it as given by Prof. White and Mr. Foshay.

The borings at Niles, Ohio (No. 11, on map), are cited by Mr. Foshay as fixing the position of the old channel at that point, if northward differential uplift be taken into account. The amount of differential uplift required if the rock floor is but 580 feet A. T. at Edenburg, is $7\frac{5}{8}$ feet per mile, allowing the stream no fall between Edenburg (No. 14), and Niles; and $9\frac{3}{8}$ feet allowing the stream a fall of one foot per mile, Niles being 12 miles farther north than Edenburg and about 22 miles distant by the stream, while the valley floor there is 94 feet higher than at Edenburg. If we are allowed to assume an uplift of $9\frac{3}{8}$ feet per mile, or even of $7\frac{5}{8}$ feet, nearly every large stream tributary to the Ohio from the State of Ohio, as well as the lower Allegheny and the Monongahela, could be carried into the Lake Erie basin, and we could if we saw fit attach to the Lake Erie basin all the southern tributaries of the Ohio from West Virginia and eastern Kentucky.

In the above calculation a continuous deep channel from Edenburg to Niles is assumed but there is evidence against the validity of this assumption. At Lowellville, Ohio (No. 18), the Mahoning, as has been noted by Dr. Newberry,* has a rocky bed, an examination of the valley at this village for the purpose of finding, if possible, evidence of a deep channel leading through it convinced me that not only is there no evidence of its existence but on the contrary the rock is exposed at frequent intervals throughout the whole width of the valley, the village as well as the river bed being upon rock. The outcrops are so frequent that there appears to be no room for a gorge so much as 100 yards in width, much less for one sufficient to be the outlet of such a stream as must have been discharged by the Monongahela and lower Allegheny rivers. It therefore appears that the hypothesis of a discharge northward along the Mahoning route involves a hypothetical uplift of an improbable amount, wholly unsustained by evidence, and further, that the constriction of the valley at Lowellville makes the route an inherently improbable one.

I have also examined the Shenango valley for the purpose of discovering a northward outlet for the deep channel at Edenburg. The rock floor of this valley is struck at several points about 125 feet below the present stream and seems to slope with the present stream, southward, instead of toward the Erie basin. At Greenville several borings have been made which test quite well the valley throughout its entire width, and no channel of greater depth exists unless it be a narrow gorge inadequate for the passage of a large stream. The level of the lowest part of the valley floor through much of the business portion of the city is about 815 feet A. T. This is 155

glacial terraces from its northern tributaries above Wellsburg, West Virginia, and all these terraces continue down the Ohio and have a fall as great as the present stream, showing that an open valley existed previous to the later glacial period and that its stream has since this glacial period been reëxcavating a channel partially filled by glacial gravels. Furthermore, gas well borings at Wellsburg, West Virginia, where Mr. Foshay has placed the old watershed, show the rock floor there to be but 590 feet A. T. or 10 feet lower than it is known to be at any point along the Ohio in Pennsylvania. A carefully prepared report of a well has been sent me by Millard E. Boyd, Esq., city engineer of Wellsburg, in which the character and thickness of drift are given and the altitude of the rock floor is referred to low water in the Ohio, from which it appears that the drift below the level of low water mark is gravel, showing vigorous drainage, and the rock floor is 40.58 feet below low water. Mr. Boyd states that within a radius of two miles about thirty wells have been made and that those on the same bottom with the one reported all show the rock floor to have about the same altitude (590 feet A. T.)

This evidence from the Ohio valley seems conclusive that the Monongahela and Allegheny rivers had their present course down the Ohio in the interglacial period and have held it continuously from that time to the present.

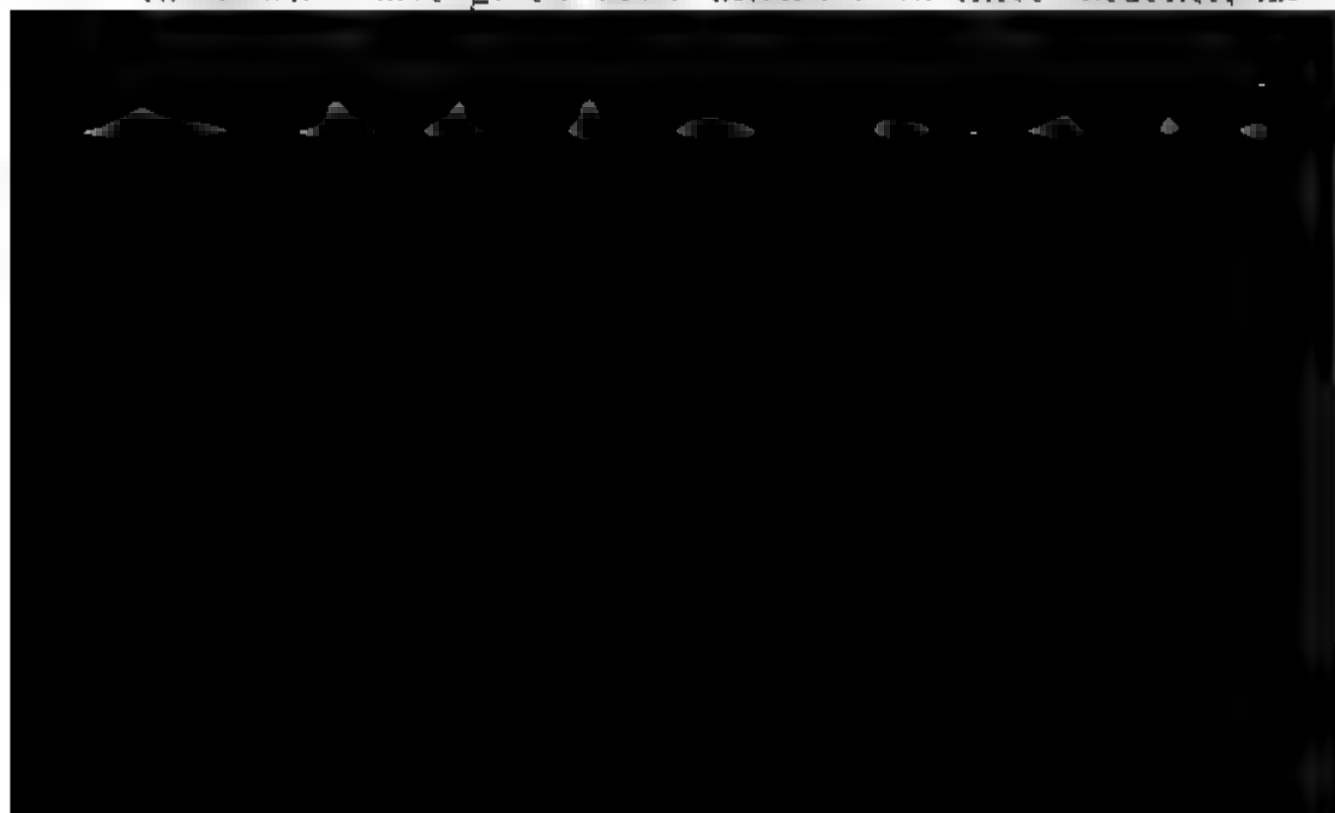
In view of the results arrived at by the study of this portion of the Upper Ohio district, we are naturally led to examine the nature of the evidence put forth by Mr. J. F. Carll some years ago,* as a demonstration that the buried channels of the upper Allegheny, Conewango, Oil, and French creeks have an outlet into the Lake Erie basin. In discussing this evidence the buried channels (interglacial fluvial planes) only are considered and no account is taken of the high terraces (preglacial fluvial planes) since these high planes have not been sufficiently investigated north of the glacial boundary to enable one to form an opinion concerning them.

The numerous oil well borings show that the valley floors of several northern tributaries of the Allegheny have higher altitudes near the mouths of these tributaries than they have a few miles upstream. For example, in the Conewango valley the rock floor is 129 feet lower at Fentonville, near the State line of New York and Pennsylvania, than it is at the mouth of the stream, 13 miles south, and the rock floor of Little Brokenstraw valley is 148 feet lower at Lottsville, Penn. (No. 1), than where its waters join the Allegheny 15 miles below. In other tributaries of the Allegheny the descent of the rock floor begins a few miles above the mouth; thus in Oil creek the

* Penn. 2d Geol. Survey III, 1880, pp. 330-366.

valley floor has its highest point near Titusville, Penn. (No. 2), and there is a descent of 66 feet in eight miles upstream. The valley floor of French creek rises for five or six miles upstream, but near Meadville (No. 3), 25 miles above its mouth, the rock floor is about 150 feet lower than at the mouth of the creek. The floor of Big Sandy creek rises from its mouth to the vicinity of Raymilton (No. 17), but descends above that village, being fully 40 feet lower at Sandy Lake than at Raymilton. Borings are sufficiently numerous to show a strong probability that these valley floors have no channels deep enough to drain them southward, but unfortunately they are not sufficient to demonstrate whether or not there is a continuous descent to the Lake Erie basin from any of the points noted. Mr. Carll has shown that there appears to be no obstacle to the northward continuation of the Conewango valley past Cassadaga lake into Lake Erie, though it is necessary to assume about 500 feet of drift filling at the watershed. Similarly, to give French creek a northern outlet by way of Conneaut lake and Conneaut creek a drift filling of over 300 feet at the watershed north of Conneaut lake must be assumed.

Inasmuch as the northward drainage of these buried channels remains an open question, a brief consideration of other hypotheses to account for the phenomena seems called for. A certain amount of northward descent may prove to be due to crust-deformation. The beaches about Lakes Erie and Ontario, and those of the Glacial Lake Agassiz, as is well known, indicate clearly a northward differential uplift accompanying the retreat of the ice, but they indicate nothing as to the depression that preceded this uplift. In the opinion of those who have given most attention to these beaches, the



through which it flowed is an open question, but that subglacial waters exerted a peculiar eroding power in certain places near the ice margin is conclusively shown in various parts of the glaciated district by the presence of large channels made by them. Some of these are remote from present streams and have been little affected by post-glacial erosion. Their trend is in line with the striation and approximately at right angles with the moraine. They are often occupied by osars and hence are called "osar troughs." These troughs or channels sometimes rise toward the moraine at the rate of several feet per mile, and yet the material in the osars lying in them shows conclusively that the flow was in that direction. The water seems to have been forced upward toward the ice margin by the weight of the ice sheet and by hydrostatic pressure. These osar troughs were formed just before the ice made its final retreat, but the eroding power, of which they are the product, was probably in operation in earlier stages of the ice invasion. The outer moraine in the district under discussion is a complex one, the equivalent of several moraines farther west that indicate a succession of advances and retreats of the ice front. In the early stages the rock floors of these valleys may have been deepened in places by the subglacial streams in the same manner as the osar troughs were produced. By reference to the accompanying map it will be seen that every valley in which a very low rock floor has been reported has a trend approximately at right angles with the moraine and in line with the ice movement; that is, such a trend as to invite the flow of ice and of subglacial waters. Furthermore it appears that in every case the lowest known point of the rock channel in these several valleys is near the inner border of the moraine. In case it is found that no northward outlets exist the most plausible explanation for the low altitude at these points would seem to be a deepening of the channels here below their main outlets by subglacial waters assisted, perhaps, by the ice itself.

Summing up all the available evidence, it appears that no northward outlets have been found for the low channels just within the moraine on these several streams which are not embarrassed, either by a rise in the rock floor or an extraordinary amount of drift. In the streams under special consideration, the Shenango, Mahoning and Beaver, it appears that the rock floor rises in all directions from Edenburg, unless there be a descent down the Beaver. The obstacles to a northward discharge of these streams seem, on the whole, greater than those in the way of a southward discharge. In the Monongahela, lower Allegheny and the Ohio valleys, the available evidence all indicates southward discharge along the present course of the Ohio from the interglacial period to the present time.

Taking into consideration all the known facts, it certainly seems premature to urge, without distinct qualification, the acceptance of a hypothesis of northward drainage for any of these streams during the interglacial epoch, and much more so to impose a name for the unproven river.

Moraine-headed terraces.—President Chamberlin's description of the moraine-headed terraces and general remarks upon the history of the several fluvial planes embody so well the essential facts that further remarks are unnecessary. From his paper the following extracts are taken verbatim.*

"The third group of terraces are sharply distinguishable from those which have just been considered; first, in the fact that, instead of being rock platforms covered by fluvial material, they are made up bodily of coarse alluvium, mainly gravel. They have their chief development in the rivers entering the Ohio from the north, and when traced up they are found to head on one of the moraines of the later glacial epoch, or at least of a later glacial epoch following at a considerable interval an earlier one. The uppermost of these terraces has for its surface plane the ancient flood deposits of the glacier-fed streams. The lower terraces have been cut out of it by subsequent erosion. Near the moraine this upper glacial flood surface may be traced continuously, rising somewhat rapidly as the moraine is approached, and passing gradually into a series of undulations which merge into the gravelly knobs and basins, and thence into the unassorted hills of the moraine. This relationship was satisfactorily observed by Mr. Gilbert and myself, separately or jointly, on Conewango creek, near Russellburg; on the Little Brokenstraw, near Freehold; on the Big Brokenstraw, near Horn'siding; and on Oil creek near

terrace rises 127 feet above the Ohio, according to a lock-level measurement by Mr. Gilbert.

Similar moraine-headed terraces occur in Ohio on the Muskingum, Scioto, and Mad rivers and their tributaries, and seem to have their equivalent in terraces on the lower stretches of these rivers and on the Ohio. In other words, there is a general system of deep valley gravels, starting from the moraines indicated and sweeping down the valleys, growing progressively finer in material. Out of these glacial flood deposits a system of terraces has been cut by subsequent erosion. The still later glacial episodes seem to have introduced modifying elements, but these are unimportant in this connection.

The time and manner of origin of the moraine-headed terrace planes are placed beyond question by their morainic connections. They are clearly the products of the streams that issued from the glacier during the moraine-forming epoch. The carving of the terraces out of these planes was chiefly a subsequent work, of relatively minor importance in the present discussion. The coarseness of the gravels of this series indicates vigorous drainage, which in turn implies an open valley and at least a fair gradient below. It is equally evident that terraces of a much higher level and different gradient could not have been formed at the same time. Minor side-valley terraces might have been formed at flood stages, but only to the height of the maximum floods, and these must have had the same slope as the broad flood planes.

It is clear that the upper gravel-bearing terraces were not formed at the same stage as these moraine-appended ones, for they are not only of a different type, being alluvium-covered rock platforms, but they stand high above most of the morainic heads of the later deposits and show much greater antiquity in the erosion of their surfaces. For example, at Warren the old gravels have an altitude of 1415 feet above sea-level, with a terrace at 1395 feet, while the moraine-headed flood deposits of the later epoch at Russellburg, eight miles upstream, occur at about 1275 feet. On the Beaver river the moraine-headed gravel stream has an elevation of about 830 feet, while along the valley below pebbles referred to the earlier epoch range from 900 to 950 feet, and ten miles below there is a wide rock-based terrace at about 885 feet. But these higher gravels contain pebbles of granite and other crystalline rock, whose presence is only to be accounted for through glacial agencies, and the explanation of their origin must embrace that element."

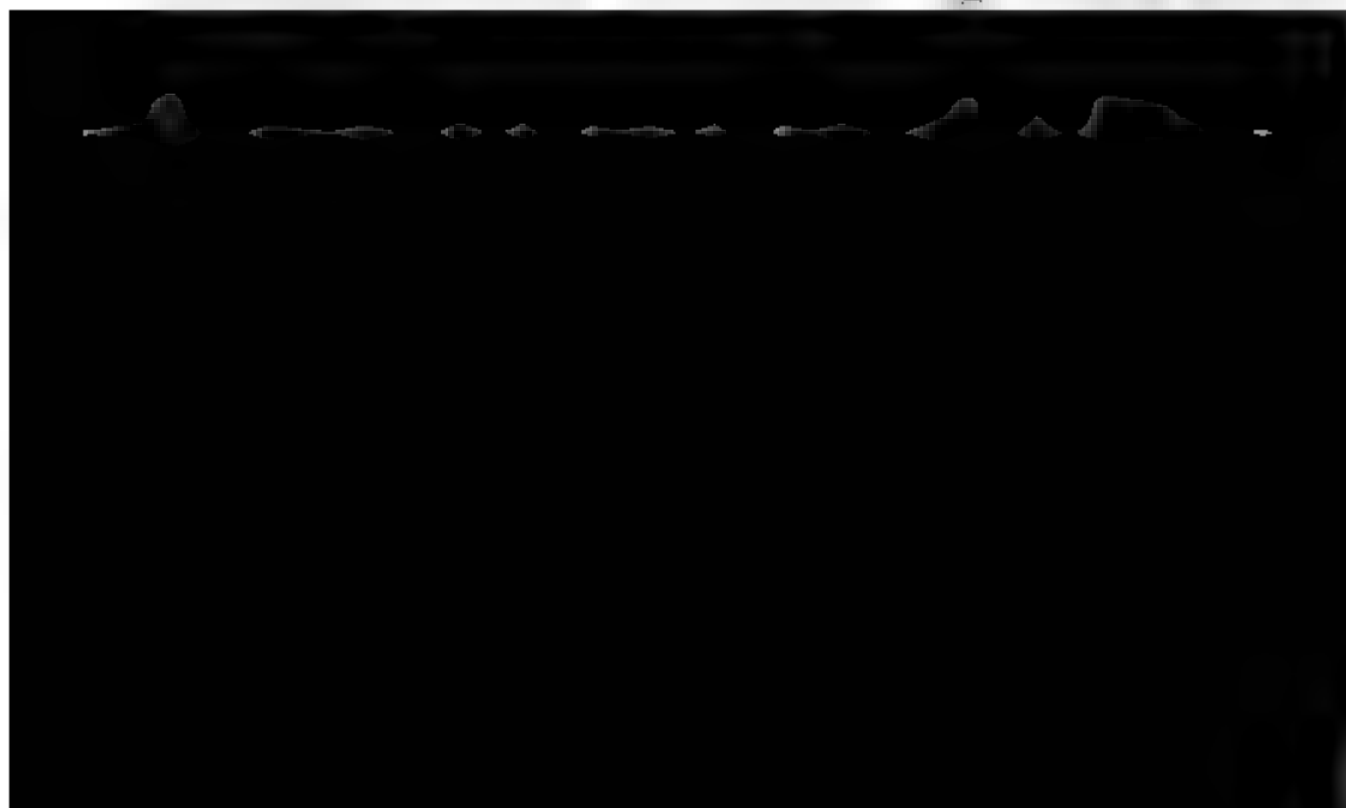
"The higher glacial gravels antedated those of the moraine-forming epoch by the measure of the erosion of the channel through the old drift and the rock, whose mean depth here is about 300 feet, of which, perhaps, 250 may be said to be rock.

The excavation that intervened between the two epochs in other portions of the Allegheny, Monongahela, and Upper Ohio valleys is closely comparable with this.

In view of these facts it seems scarcely less than proven that it was the earlier invasion of ice that reversed the drainage and partially filled the valleys with debris, forming the capping of glacial gravel that rests upon the upper terrace."

"From the fact that the fluvial material in these abandoned channels and on the corresponding terraces in the Monongahela valley is wholly local, or southern, while among the analogous material of the Allegheny there mingle crystalline erratics of Canadian derivation, and from the evidence given above, we draw the inference that the partial filling was coincident with some stage of the earlier glaciation, presumably a late stage. This view gathers some support from the now well sustained belief that a general depression and slackening of drainage accompanied the earlier glaciation.

Following this episode of valley-filling and earlier glaciation there was a prolonged epoch of rapid erosion of the valley bottom, which was apparently coincident with an interglacial epoch, and was, perhaps the result of the resilience of the land after the glacial depression. During this epoch the rock gorges were cut down to the rock bottoms that now lie forty feet or more below the present river bottoms. Then came the later invasion that halted at the outer terminal moraine, whose overloaded floods, like those of the preceding glacial incursion, filled the valley bottoms with glacial alluvium; only, in this instance, in harmony with the more vigorous character of the later glaciation, the filling reached, at some points, 300 feet. Since that time there has been another stage of reexcavation,



ART. XIX.—*A method for the Determination of Antimony and its condition of Oxidation*; by F. A. GOOCH and H. W. GRUENER.

[Contributions from the Kent Chemical Laboratory of Yale College.—VIII.]

BUNSEN'S method of determining qualitatively the condition of oxidation of salts of antimony, by boiling these substances in solution with potassium iodide and hydrochloric acid and noting whether the liquid takes the color of free iodine, has been applied successfully to the quantitative determination of antimony in its highest condition of oxidation by Weller,* who distils the iodine from the solution, collects it in the distillate and, determining it volumetrically, calculates from the amount of it found the antimonie salt which sets it free according to the equation



The advantage of treating the residue, rather than the distillate, in analytical processes in general which involve distillation is so obvious as to constrain us to seek conditions under which Bunsen's reaction may be applied in such manner that the antimony shall be held and estimated directly in the residue. The general plan of work was laid down in a similar process elaborated in this laboratory for the reduction of arsenic acid.† According to this process the arsenic to be reduced is taken in a solution of appropriate dilution, and treated with sulphuric acid in adjusted amount and an excess of potassium iodide. The liquid thus prepared is boiled to a definite degree of concentration, the iodine then remaining unexpelled, if any, is bleached by the very careful addition of dilute (centinormal) sulphurous acid, and the liquid is immediately diluted and neutralized. After cooling, the reduced arsenic is titrated by standard iodine in presence of starch.

We found in preliminary experimentation that the same general plan of treatment is available in the handling of antimonie compounds, but it is necessary to take precautions to prevent the deposition of the antimony from solution upon the addition of the sulphuric acid. Tartaric acid accomplishes this effect satisfactorily and does not, as the result proved, introduce undesirable complications. It transpired also that the dilution of the solution at which the crystalline iodide or oxyiodide separates out during the boiling is greater than is the case when similar amounts of arsenic are dealt with. It appeared, for example, that concentration to 45cm.³ was sufficient to cause crystallization and slight sublimation when the

* Ann. d. Chem. u. Pharm., cccxiii, 246.

† Gooch and Browning, this Journal, xl, p. 66.

amount of antimonious oxide present (with excess of potassium iodide and 10cm.³ of sulphuric acid, 1:1) was approximately 0.2 gram. Otherwise the process as employed in the reduction of arsenic appeared to be applicable to the similar treatment of antimony.

The following quantitative experiments were undertaken to discover the condition of concentration best suited to the reduction of antimonie salts under circumstances otherwise like those adapted to the reduction of arsenic, and to test the perfection of the process. Definite amounts of tartar emetic, purified by recrystallization, were used to make the antimonie salt to be afterward reduced, the antimony being raised to the highest degree of oxidation by titration with standard iodine after the addition of sodium tartrate (to prevent the precipitation of the antimony during the process of oxidation) and hydrogen sodium carbonate in the usual excess. In this process starch was sometimes employed to give the end reaction, and sometimes reliance was placed upon the appearance of the color of free iodine, experience having indicated that the use of the starch is not essential when the solutions are sufficiently small in volume, though as a matter of course, the correction demanded for the excess of iodine necessary to give color to the body of liquid is greater when starch is not used.

This treatment of the tartar emetic served the double purpose of providing a perfectly definite antimonie salt and re-standardizing the solution of standard iodine, which was to be used subsequently in reoxidizing the antimony after its reduction, against the tartar emetic; and thus the imperfection of the process, whatever it may be, whether in the reduction or elsewhere, becomes apparent and is measured immediately by

imately decinormal. Four grams of tartaric acid added, and dilute sulphuric acid, if the solution still remained alkaline, to faint acidity. In addition 10 cm.³ of a mixture of sulphuric acid and water in equal parts were introduced and the liquid was boiled after introducing a platinum wire to prevent bumping, and a trap made of a two-bulb dry-gas-wash-bottle cut short and hung, large end downward, in the neck of the flask, to prevent mechanical loss. At the chosen volume of concentration, determined by marks upon the flask, boiling was stopped, the color bleached by the cautious addition of sulphurous acid (approximately centinormal), and the solution, nearly neutralized with sodium hydrate, made alkaline by hydrogen sodium carbonate added in an excess amounting to about 20 cm.³ of the saturated solution, was decanted with the standard (decinormal) iodine after the addition of a fresh portion of starch.

Table I, contains the account of experiments in which the amounts of antimony were employed.

TABLE I.

| Expt. No. | Tartaric acid taken. | Sb ₂ O ₃ taken. | Iodine used in final oxidation. | Sb ₂ O ₃ found. | Error. |
|--------------|----------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|--|---------|
| | gram. | gram. | gram. | gram. | gram. |
| 1 | 0.5021 | 0.2178 | 0.3522 | 0.2004 | 0.0174— |
| 2 | 0.5030 | 0.2181 | 0.3784 | 0.2153 | 0.0028— |
| 3 | 0.5008 | 0.2172 | 0.3768 | 0.2144 | 0.0028— |
| 4 | 0.5010 | 0.2173 | 0.3780 | 0.2151 | 0.0022— |
| 5 | 0.5010 | 0.2173 | 0.3809 | 0.2168 | 0.0005— |
| 6 | 0.5023 | 0.2178 | 0.3827 | 0.2178 | 0.0000 |
| 7 | 0.5015 | 0.2175 | 0.3806 | 0.2166 | 0.0009— |
| 8 | 0.5007 | 0.2172 | 0.3814 | 0.2171 | 0.0001— |
| 9 | 0.5039 | 0.2185 | 0.3839 | 0.2185 | 0.0000 |
| 10 | 0.5001 | 0.2169 | 0.3818 | 0.2173 | 0.0004+ |
| 11 | 0.5004 | 0.2170 | 0.3825 | 0.2176 | 0.0006+ |

The results of these experiments indicate unmistakably that the reduction may be brought about under the conditions, at a concentration to a volume of from 45 cm.³ to 55 cm.³; the boiling is not only advantageous but necessary. The mean error of the determination in which the final volume was within these limits was zero between limits of 0.0009 gram. to 0.0006 gram.+. In both determinations in which a final volume of 45 cm.³ was reached, and in one of the experiments in which the final volume was 50 cm.³, the formation of the white antimonious iodide or oxyiodide in the liquid was observed and the deposition of a very slight sublimate of the salt in the trap. It is evident, therefore, that it would be hazardous to attempt to push the concentration further.

In all these experiments hydriodic acid was present in amount equivalent to 1.1 gm. of potassium iodide—0.5 gm. introduced as iodine and 0.6 gm. introduced as such in the standard iodine where it plays the part of solvent.

In the experiments recorded in Table II, smaller amounts of antimony and correspondingly smaller quantities of the oxidizing solution were employed; otherwise, the same general mode of proceeding was followed. The limits of concentration fixed upon were, however, varied somewhat. The previous experiments showed plainly that anything like a complete reduction of the antimony could not be anticipated when the final volume was greater than 60 cm.³, and the experience with the smaller amounts of antimony treated in the second series pointed to the fact, as the work progressed, that for them the crystallization and sublimation did not occur until the concentration had brought about a decrease in volume to 35 cm.³. The limits of final volume were placed therefore, for these experiments, at 60 cm.³ and 35 cm.³. Centinormal iodine was used for the oxidations and bleaching with sulphurous acid was found to be unnecessary, the amount of iodine liberated in these experiments being so small as to vanish in the concentration so completely that no color was visible (nor was it brought out by starch) after washing down the trap and cooling. There did remain a trace of color before the addition of the water but this seemed to us to be due in all probability to the incipient formation of the antimonious iodide or oxyiodide which is decomposed by the action of more water. At all events it disappeared on the addition of water and no reoxidation of the antimony was found subsequently.

treating the larger amounts. The only point in which experiments differ essentially from those of the previous is in the quantity of the iodine solution employed to this oxidation. So far as concerns the free iodine itself conditions are similar in both series; for the iodine is condensed in both cases to hydriodic acid exactly equivalent in amount to the antimony acted upon. The potassium iodide which is added in the iodine solution produces by action upon sulphuric acid present an excess of hydriodic acid, which of course, dependent upon the absolute amount of the iodine solution employed. The hydriodic acid is the active agent in the reduction of the antimony, and to the greater action in the former series of experiments might be attributed the more complete reduction for equal degrees of concentration. Accordingly the determinations of Table III were made to put this point to the test. In these experiments conditions were identical with those of the determinations of Table II, excepting that in every case 1 gram. of potassium iodide was added to the liquid before boiling, thus bringing the total amount of hydriodic acid present to an equality with that present in the experiments of Table I, in which the larger amounts of antimony were treated. The results of these experiments bear out completely the hypothesis concerning the mass-action of the hydriodic acid—the smaller amounts of antimony being completely reduced in the presence of the excess of hydriodic acid even at a final volume of 60 cm.³ with a maximum error of 0·0002 gram.—

TABLE III.

| Initial me. | Tartar Emetic taken. | Sb ₂ O ₃ taken. | Iodine used in final oxidation. | Sb ₂ O ₃ found. | Error. |
|----------------|----------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|--|---------|
| . ³ | gram. | gram. | gram. | gram. | gram. |
|) | 0·0500 | 0·0217 | 0·0378 | 0·0215 | 0·0002— |
|) | 0·0500 | 0·0217 | 0·0379 | 0·0216 | 0·0001— |
|) | 0·0500 | 0·0217 | 0·0379 | 0·0216 | 0·0001— |

It is plain therefore that we have in the phenomena described the basis of a good method for the iodometric determination of the condition of oxidation of antimony; for, the amount of antimonious salt present in a mixture of antimonious and antimonie salts may be determined by direct titration with a saline solution, and the total amount of antimony present may be determined similarly after the treatment by boiling, as described, with potassium iodide and sulphuric acid, the amount of antimonie salt being immediately calculable from the difference between the quantities of the standard iodine used as the

oxidizer before and after reduction. The best method of proceeding appears to be that in which the concentration was restricted so that the point of sublimation and crystallization was not reached and in which the presence of an excess of potassium iodide was assured.

It seemed desirable, in this connection, to test the applicability of the method, as outlined, to the reduction and estimation of antimony and arsenic associated together, as so often happens in practice. The preceding experiments establish the fact that it is undesirable to attempt, in treating antimony, to force the concentration of the solution below 50 cm.³, under the conditions laid down and when the amount of antimony present is equivalent to the maximum with which we have experimented, about 0.2 gm. of antimonious oxide. In the parallel process for the determination of arsenic concentration to 40 cm.³ was recommended in all cases (the maximum amount treated being equivalent to about 0.33 gm. of arsenious oxide), but it was not shown in the elaboration of that process that reduction would not take place at a concentration not quite so extreme. In the results recorded in Table V, which relate to experiments which duplicate the conditions found most favorable to the reduction of varying amounts of antimony,—the presence of the equivalent of 1.1 gm. of potassium iodide, and concentration to 50 cm.³—and differ from these only in the fact that arsenic was associated with antimony in every case, it appears that the reduction of arsenic may be effected simultaneously with that of the antimony.

TABLE IV.

Differences

outlined and determinable with accuracy by titration with the standardized against arsenious oxide. In this latter we show that antimony may be reduced similarly and estimated satisfactorily by titration against iodine standardized against tartar emetic. These two methods of standardizing do yield identical results, and so we are confronted with an inherent error in the process for estimating antimony and arsenic at once, which cannot be overcome unless the individual amount of one or other constituent may be otherwise determined. If the determination of either the arsenic or antimony is possible it is, of course, easy to calculate with the aid of the appropriate standard the amount of the solution of one which is really engaged in the oxidation of this particular constituent, and the remainder of the iodine actually employed, gauged by the second standard, will give the corrected amount of the second constituent.

In a case no such correction is feasible it becomes a matter of interest to note the magnitude of possible error. Our experience, based upon many determinations throughout the course of the work detailed above, pointed to a difference in the value of the two standards amounting to about one-half of one per cent. If, therefore, the weight of reduced oxide amounts to the maximum which we have experimented with—about 0.2 gm.—the greatest possible error will be 0.0010 gm. + or - 0.0010 gm. —, according as the entire 0.2 gm. is antimonious salt estimated by the arsenic standard, or arsenious oxide estimated by the tartar emetic standard. The essential features of the process which we propose for the reduction of antimony and the determination of its degree of oxidation are recapitulated briefly in the following statement.

The salt of antimony, not exceeding the equivalent of about 0.2 gm. of antimonious oxide, is titrated, in presence of 1 gm. sodium tartrate and the usual excess of sodium hydrogen carbonate, by means of iodine standardized against tartaric acid. The result of this titration gives the amount of antimonious salt present. To the solution are then added 10 ccs. of tartaric, dilute sulphuric acid, if necessary, to effect neutralization, an excess of 10 ccs. of half and half sulphuric acid, and enough potassium iodide so that there shall be present an equivalent of hydriodic acid the equivalent of a little more than 0.2 gm. of the iodide. The liquid is diluted to 100 ccs., boiled in an Erlenmeyer beaker until the volume is decreased to 50 ccs., the precaution being taken to introduce a platinum wire to prevent bumping and a trap, as described, to obviate mechanical loss. The color remaining after concentration, if there be any, is bleached by dilute sulphurous acid (approximately centinormal). The solution is nearly neutralized with

was added to alkalinity, 20 cm.³ of a saturated solution of this salt were added in excess, and the arsenious oxide in solution was titrated by standardized decinormal iodine in presence of starch. The iodine added in the reoxidation of the arsenious oxide was taken as the exact equivalent of the iodine expelled in boiling. Several closely agreeing determinations made in this manner served to fix the standard of the solution.

The action of chloric acid under similar conditions was tested by following out exactly the process employed in standardizing the iodide, with the exception that weighed amounts of potassium chlorate, purified by recrystallization, were also introduced and that the precaution was taken to have the potassium iodide present in every case to an amount at least eight and a half times as great as that of the potassium chlorate—this amount being a little more than the equivalent weight of the iodide referred to the chlorate. The experiments involved amounts of the chlorate ranging from 0.2 grms. to 0.01 gm., and quantities of the iodide varying from eight and a half to fifty times those of the chlorate. The results with all essential details are contained in the following table:

| I. | II. | III. | IV. | V. | VI. | VII. | VIII. | IX. |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|--------|--------|--|-----------------|--|--------|
| H_2SO_4 [1:1] | H_2KAsO_4 | $\text{KI} = 1$ | | | Difference between Iodine taken and Iodine added to oxidize As_2O_3 . | KClO_3 | KClO_3 found,— that is, equivalent to I in column VI. | Error. |
| taken. | taken | taken. | taken. | | | taken. | ummm VI. | |
| cm. ³ | grm. | grm. | grm. | grm. | grm. | grm. | grm. | grm. |
| 20 | 2 | 2.0092 | 1.5356 | 0.2962 | 1.2394 | 0.2000 | 0.2000 | 0.0000 |
| 20 | 2 | 2.0092 | 1.5356 | 0.2973 | 1.2383 | 0.2000 | 0.1999 | 0.0001 |

The paper upon the determination of iodine, to which reference has been made and upon which this process is based, prescribes corrections for the volatility of arsenious chloride and the slight deoxidation of arsenic acid when chlorides and bromides are also present in considerable amount. In this process, however, the amount of hydrochloric acid evolved from the maximum weight of chlorate treated—0.2 gm. of the potassium salt—calls for a correction so small as to be insignificant.

ART. XXI.—*Dampening of Electrical Oscillations on Iron Wires*; by JOHN TROWBRIDGE.

[Presented to the American Academy of Sciences, May 27, 1891.]

It has generally been assumed by those who have studied the subject of very rapid oscillations of electricity, such as occur in Leyden jar discharges, that the magnetic character of the conductor has very little influence upon the character of the discharge. Thus, in a note to an article on electrical waves, W. Feddersen states that electrical oscillations may suffer a slight weakening on iron; but this diminution is very slight:—

“Beim Eisen könnte in Folge der Magnetisirungen eine Abweichung hervortreten; in dess zeigt der Versuch, dass dieselbe keinenfalls bedeutend ist, übrigens in dem Sinne erfolgen müsste, als wenn die Elektrizität beim Eisen ein grössere Hinderniss fände, wie bei den übrigen Metallen.”*

In Dr. Lodge's treatise on *Modern Views of Electricity* (ed. 1889), we find the following:—

“But in the case of the discharge of a Leyden jar iron is of no advantage. The current oscillates so quickly that any iron introduced into its circuit, however subdivided into thin wires it may be, is protected from magnetism by inverse currents induced in its outer skin, and accordingly does not get magnetized; and so far from increasing the inductance of the discharge circuit, it positively diminishes it by the reaction effect of these induced currents; it acts, in fact, much as a mass of copper might be expected to do.” (p. 365.)

Fleming writes as follows:

“With respect to the apparent superiority of iron it would naturally be supposed that, since the magnetic permeability of iron bestows upon it greater inductance, it would form a less suitable conductor for discharging with great suddenness of electric energy. Owing to the fact that the current only penetrates just into the skin of the conductor, there is but little of

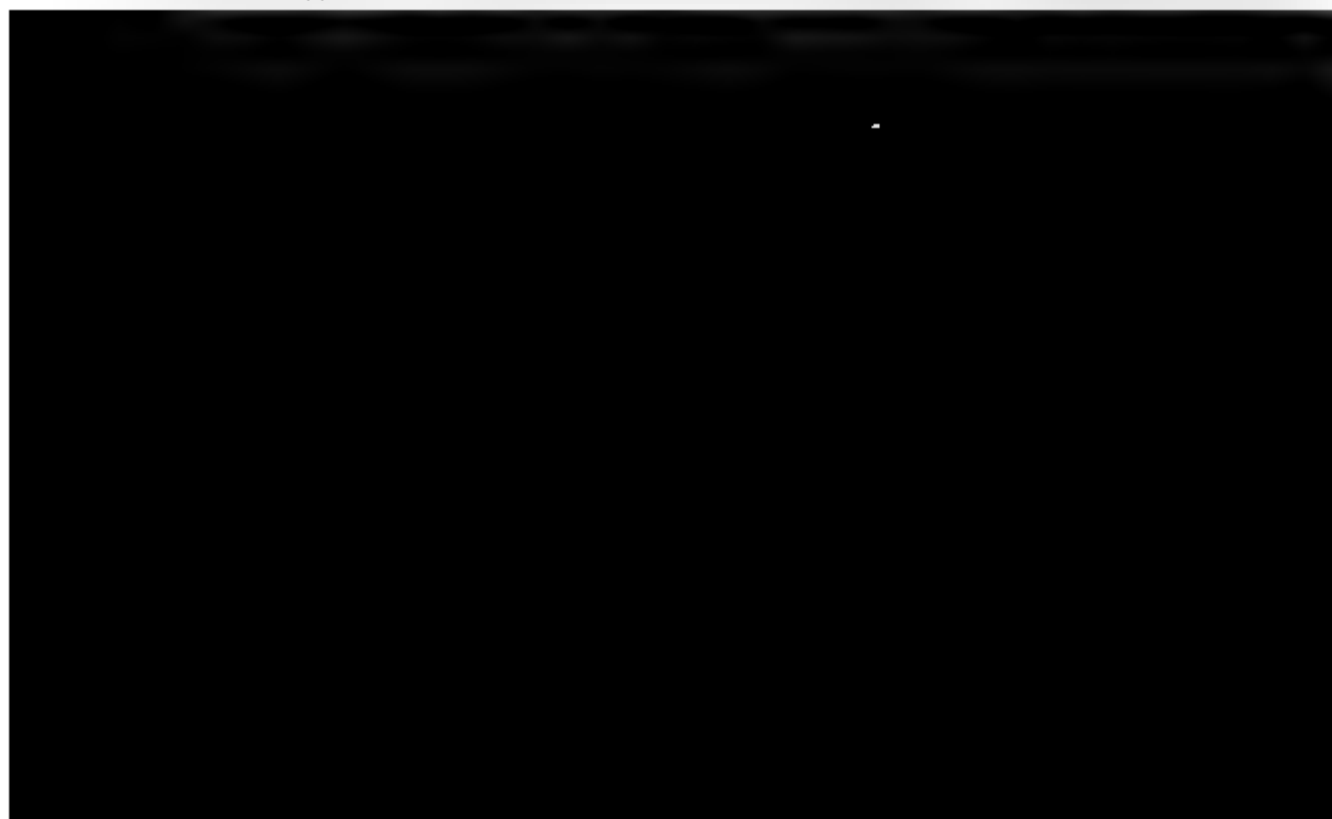
* *Annalen der Physik und Chemie*, No. 108, 1859, p. 499.

the mass of the iron magnetized. Even if these instantaneous discharges are capable of magnetizing iron, . . . the electromotive impulses or sudden rushes of electricity do not magnetize the iron, and hence do not find in it any greater self-inductive opposition than they would find in a non-magnetic but otherwise similar conductor. Dr. Lodge's further researches seem to show that there is a real advantage in using iron for lightning conductors over copper, and that its greater specific resistance and higher fusing point enables an iron rod or tape to get rid safely of an amount of electric energy stored up in the dielectric which would not be the case if it were copper."*

Fleming describes in full Dr. Lodge's experiments to prove the non-magnetizability of iron by sudden discharges:—

"In the experiments on alternative path, as described by Dr. Lodge, the main result is very briefly summed up by saying that, when a sudden discharge had to pass through a conductor, it was found that iron and copper acted about equally well, and indeed iron sometimes exhibited a little superiority, and that the thickness of the conductor and its ordinary conductivity mattered very little indeed. . . . In the case of enormously rapid oscillations the value of the impulsive impedance varies in simple proportion to the frequency of the oscillations, and depends on the form and size of the circuit, but not at all on its specific resistance, magnetic permeability, or diameter. . . . For discharges of a million per second and upwards, such as occur in jar discharges and perhaps in lightning, the impedance of all reasonably conducting circuits is the same, and independent of conductivity and permeability, and hardly affected by enormous changes in diameter."†

Turning now to the observations of Hertz, we find it stated



the magnetic susceptibility of iron does not play any part in the case of such rapid motions.*

Although the impulsive impedance is apparently not affected by the magnetic character of the wire, experiments lead me to believe that discharges of the quick period of a Leyden jar are retarded very appreciably by the magnetic nature of iron, steel, and nickel conductors. This effect is so great that it dampens electrical oscillations, and makes it difficult to determine whether the time of oscillation is also affected by the permeability of the conductor.

The apparatus employed was similar to that described in the investigation of electrical oscillations with an air condenser.† Certain important modifications, however, were made. The mirror which was used in the former research was replaced by a concave mirror of ten feet focus and three and a half inches in radius. This mirror was mounted upon the end of the armature shaft of a one-half horse power electric motor. The discharging apparatus consisted of a sharp cutting tool, flattened, and mounted on the edge of the rotating disk bearing the mirror. It was metallically connected with a grooved pulley of brass mounted upon the shaft and insulated from it by a layer of rubber. Around this was wound a copper wire, one end of which was connected with the discharging wire, and the other drawn taut by a rubber band. The electrical discharge was thrown on to the circuit by thrusting forward a lever which brought a solid hinged frame containing a strip of soft type-metal into contact with the rapidly revolving steel-cutting pulley. An electrical contact was thus insured by the tool cutting a groove in the strip of type-metal. In order to avoid a spark at the contact, the type-metal was thickly covered with a coating of peculiar composition. The only spark that occurred, before, was the one the oscillations of which I desired to study. At each trial the type-metal was moved so as to expose a new cutting surface. The type-metal was insulated from the rest of the apparatus, but connected with the outer coating of the Leyden jar; first both terminals of the Holtz machine were disconnected, and immediately after the cutting tool, ploughing a furrow through the type-metal, placed the outer coating of the Leyden jar in circuit with one of the two parallel wires leading to the terminals of the spark. The other wire was permanently in connection with the inner coating of the jar.


Ersetzen wir den bisherigen Kupferdraht durch einen dickeren oder dünneren Kupferdraht oder durch einen Draht aus anderem Metall, so behalten die Punkte ihre Lager bei. Die Fortpflanzungsgeschwindigkeit in allen solchen Fällen ist daher gleich, und wir sind berechtigt, von derselben als einer bestimmten Geschwindigkeit zu reden. Auch Eisendrähte machen keine Ausnahme von der allgemeinen Regel, die Magnetisierbarkeit des Eisens kommt also bei solchen Bewegungen nicht in Betracht."—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*. No. 34, p. 558.

Proceedings of Am. Acad. of Arts and Sci., vol. xxv, p. 109.

Beside the short lead wires above described, the discharging circuit consisted of the two parallel wires 30 cm. apart and 510 cm. long. These were the only portions of the apparatus changed during the experiment, and they were replaced by wires of different material and of different size. The other conditions—length of spark, lead wires, and the copper cross wire connecting the outer end of the long parallel wires—remained undisturbed throughout the experiment.

The Leyden jar was charged each time as nearly as possible to the same potential, judging by the number of turns given the Holtz machine. It is unfortunate that no more accurate means of measuring it were at hand, although the different negatives showed but slight variation. The capacity of the jar to alternations of this period was 5060 electrostatic units.

I describe the discharging portion of the apparatus minutely, for the success of an investigation of this nature depends upon the suppression of all sparks save that which one wishes to observe; and the method surely and completely accomplished this. The photograph of the spark could thus be made to fall very accurately on the sensitive plate. When one considers that the image of the spark was flying through the air on a circle of a radius of ten feet with a velocity of a mile a second, it will be seen that an extremely small deviation in the point of contact between the cutting tool and the type-metal would have thrown the image entirely off the sensitive plate. A singular phenomenon was noticed in this connection. When a comparatively low potential was used, such as that afforded by the air condenser used in our previous investigation, the cutting tool ploughed two or three millimeters along the surface of the type metal before a spark passed at the point in the



s of a small heavily loaded carriage, which, on being ed at the moment the lever arm threw the type-metal in ct with the cutting tool, descended an inclined plane of table height.

small Töpler-Holtz machine charged a large Leyden jar, t was found to work admirably in all states of the weather. apparatus which I have thus described was the result of experience of the previous year, and worked for months out failure; and the taking of photographs of the oscilla- discharge by it became a mere matter of routine.

e following cases were tried:

) When the long parallel wires were of copper (diameter cm.), the number of double oscillations visible on the ives averaged quite uniformly 9 or 9.5.

) When the wires were of German silver (diameter cm.), three oscillations were visible.

) But when an annealed iron wire (diameter .087 cm.) was ituted, only the first return oscillation was distinctly visi- with occasionally a trace of the first duplicate discharge.

) On substituting fine copper wire (diameter .027 cm.), complete oscillations were quite uniformly visible.

) Fine German silver wire (.029 cm.), nickel wire cm.),* soft iron (.027 cm.), and piano steel wire (.027 cm.), but faintly the first return discharge after the pilot spark. e pilot sparks were in all cases strong.

e single return discharge through the iron wire did not t of measurement sufficiently accurate to furnish any basis alculatation of its self-induction. The time did not appar-

differ, if at all, by more than fourteen or fifteen per cent. e general reasoning based upon the number of oscillations be of interest. It must be acknowledged, however, that e reasoning is open to criticism, although it affords the most ible explanation. The phenomenon itself is not a doubt- ne.

e time of a double oscillation for the large-sized copper was .0000020 sec.; for the small copper wire, .0000021

The others as far as could be determined did not differ a from these values, and for this purpose either is suffi- ly accurate. Denote by R' the ohmic resistance of the lel wires to alternating currents of this periodicity; by R , esistance to steady currents.

$$p = \frac{2\pi}{t} = 3,000,000 \text{ (pratically).}$$

king the cases up in order:

* Obtained by the kindness of Joseph Wharton, Esq., of Philadelphia.

(1.) Large copper wire,

$$R=0.285 \times 10^9$$

and substituting in Lord Rayleigh's formula, $R' = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} p l \mu} R$,

$$R'=0.66 \times 10^9.$$

(2.) Large German silver wire,

$$R=9.2 \times 10^8,$$

and substituting in the series

$$R'=R \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{12} \frac{p^2 l^2 \mu^2}{R^2} - \frac{1}{180} \frac{p^4 l^4 \mu^4}{R^4} + \dots \right\},$$

$$R_1=9.2 \times 10^8.$$

(3.) Large iron wire,

$$R=2.5 \times 10^9,$$

and if there is a true time lag, as often stated, such as to prevent action of the magnetic property of the iron, and if on this assumption we make $\mu=1$,

$$R'=2.78 \times 10^9$$

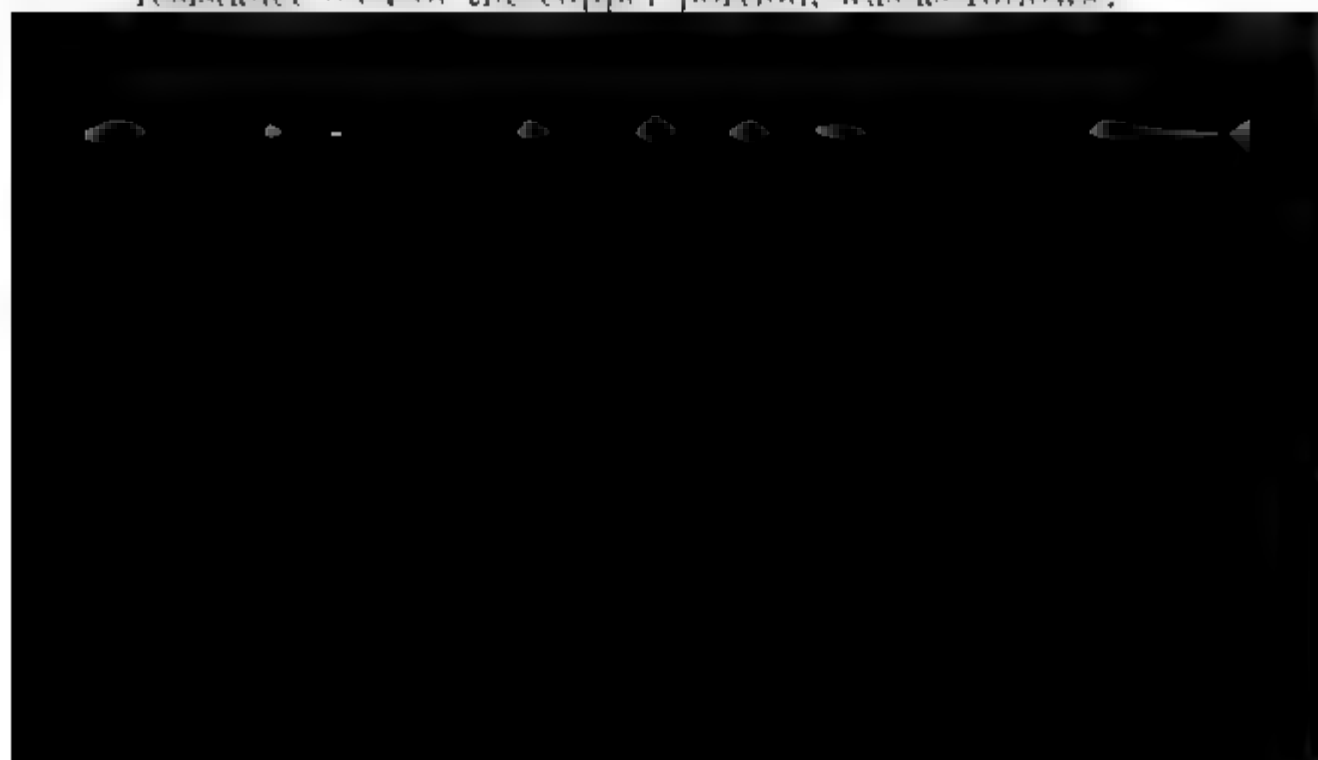
(4.) Fine copper,

$$R=3.3 \times 10^9$$

$$R'=3.5 \times 10^9.$$

(5.) Again, as before, call $\mu=1$ in iron, nickel, and steel. The length of these circuits was 7.41 meters, the remainder of the 10.20 meters — 2.79 meters—being of copper wire of $R'=0.94$.

The value of R' in the separate cases, including in each the resistance 0.94 of the copper portion, was as follows:



resistance of the short connecting lead wires and of the spark. Then will $r = R' + x$, and n will be the number of complete oscillations visible.

Take cases (1) and (2), large copper and large German silver wires :—

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon^{n_1(R'_1+x)} A &= \epsilon^{n_2(R'_2+x)} A; \\ n_1(R'_1+x) &= n_2(R'_2+x); \\ 9.5(0.66+x) &= 3(9.2+x); \\ x &= 3.4 \text{ ohms.} \end{aligned}$$

Taking cases (1) and (4) similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} n_1(R'_1+x) &= n_4(R'_4+x); \\ 9.5(0.66+x) &= 5(3.5+x); \\ x &= 2.6 \text{ ohms.} \end{aligned}$$

Experiments with other copper wires having R' equal to 3.4 and 1.27 give 5 and 8 for the values of n respectively, or

$$x = 2.4 \text{ ohms.}$$

The resistance (R') of the lead wires forming part of x was 0.8 ohm, leaving as a possible value for the resistance of the spark about 2 ohms.

If, taking this value of x , we calculate the value of R' necessary to damp out the oscillation in one complete double discharge in the case of the large iron wire, we shall have

$$\begin{aligned} 9.5(0.66 \times 3) &= 1(R' + 3); \\ R' &= 30 \text{ ohms.} \end{aligned}$$

But neglecting the magnetic property of the iron, its calculated resistance to alternating currents of this periodicity was $R' = 2.78$ ohms. This is obviously inadequate, and would point to the conclusion that the oscillation is not, as sometimes stated, too rapid to admit of the magnetic action of the iron.

If we substitute this value $R' = 30$ in the equation

$$R' = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} pl \mu R},$$

we have for the resulting value of the magnetic permeability $\mu = 230$. This lies between the limits $\mu = 103$ and $\mu = 1110$, found by taking the number of oscillations one and a half and one-half respectively for the case of the iron wire.

It should be noticed that this estimate of μ necessitates assuming that T and L remain the same within broad limits. Measurements of the single oscillation on the negatives show that this is near enough the case. Part of the more rapid decay of the oscillation in the iron may be well ascribed to the dissipation of energy by hysteresis. While we cannot place much reliance upon an estimate of its value in such a case,—its percentage effect probably increasing rapidly with the decay

of the spark,—it is not difficult to show that its influence may be very great.

There still remains the fact, not generally recognized, that, in Leyden jar discharges through iron wires, the magnetic property of the iron has time very materially to modify the character of the spark.

We give an example of the measurement of the half-oscillation which was the only one visible on the photograph of the discharge over iron wires, all the others having been dampened or extinguished by the iron, in comparison with the measurement of the similar half-oscillation on copper wires of the same diameter as the iron wires. The number of oscillations on the copper wires was eight.

The total duration of the discharge on iron wires was only three millionths of a second, while that on similar copper wire was three hundred-thousandths of a second. A steel wire gave the same results as the annealed iron wires.

Comparative lengths of first half-oscillation in millimeters.

| Fine iron wire. | Fine copper wire. |
|------------------|--------------------|
| ·23 | ·19 |
| ·21 | ·20 |
| ·19 | ·20 |
| — | — |
| ·21 | ·19 |
| Large iron wire. | Large copper wire. |
| ·20 | ·17 |
| ·20 | ·18 |
| ·19 | ·20 |
| — | — |
| ·19 | ·18 |

ART. XXII.—*Genesis of Iron-ores by Isomorphous and Pseudomorphous Replacement of Limestone, etc.*; by JAMES P. KIMBALL.

It is the object of the present memoir briefly to develop the following proposition, namely, that well recognized products of epigenesis, like siderite and ferro-calcite, in their several forms and wide distribution especially on a petrographic scale, are as a rule also products of direct pseudomorphous replacement of isomorphous calcic carbonate, like limestone, calcite, calc-sinter, calcareous sediments, calc-schutt, etc. This proposition is not new. But some of the conditions remain unsettled. So also some of the deductions which have been thought, or may seem, to follow. These it is my purpose briefly to discuss.

Contingent to this proposition, it follows that secondary or indirect replacement of calcic carbonate by ferric hydrate is wrought through alteration of pseudomorphous siderite or ferro-calcite, and also, through progressive alteration, by ferric oxide and even magnetic oxide. Hence proximate derivation from siderite of many occurrences of iron-ores which nevertheless are ultimate products of indirect or progressive pseudomorphism of calcic carbonate—itself often a product of epigenesis from basic silicates. Such occurrences may therefore be regarded as instances of double pseudomorphism, sometimes on a petrographic scale; that is, pseudomorphism in the first instance by substitution or replacement; in the second instance by alteration.

Again, ferric hydrate apparently directly pseudomorphous after limestone is produced by immediate, perhaps spontaneous, oxidation of ferrous carbonate, resulting from interchange or double decomposition between solutions of this salt or ferrous sulphate and calcic carbonate in place. All these permutations proceed from the same reactions, but differ in results according to atmospheric environment—whether oxidizing or not. The instable salt as first separated, it is scarcely necessary to add, is thrown down from solutions either of ferrous carbonate or ferrous sulphate indifferently, in reaction with dissolved calcic carbonate or other alkaline mono-carbonates. This salt however, it is important early to remark, is the hydrous salt, from which geologists, it seems, are not accustomed to distinguish the anhydrous carbonate which is almost, if not altogether, exclusively its natural form.

Other adventitious occurrences of brown and red ferric oxide well recognized as exotic, that is, neither in original

place, nor vicariously developed, form as such a separate class. These, however, as commonly understood, are products of like reactions between solutions of the same salts in circulating acidulous waters. These products, though sometimes accumulated under favorable conditions of environment and topography, are more commonly dissipated.

But for the instability of hydrous ferrous carbonate, it might be assumed to be transiently produced through reactions of ferrous salts and alkaline mono-carbonates in solution, not far from *loci* of replacement of calcic carbonate by siderite, as the result of transmission of solutions beyond range of reducing or preserving gases. Visible results of precipitation and spontaneous oxidation of this salt into ferric hydrate in these circumstances on the one hand, and direct precipitation of ferric hydrate through oxidation on the other hand, are identical. Hence the two processes in nature can seldom be distinguished.

The general proposition may now be advanced—that deposits of concentrated iron-ores occur far more extensively as pseudomorphous replacements than has hitherto been made to appear; and far more extensively than by original sedimentation of ferric hydrate in hydrographic basins (if indeed important deposits have ever been formed in this way), followed by chemical transmutations so far as essential to their plausible explanation upon theories of such a common genesis. In the present place, suffice it to indicate the impracticability of conceiving of sedimentation of ferriferous material without siliceous alternations, or of great accumulations of non-ferruginous, non-siliceous sediments at all, except in the case of marine limestones. These are preëminently the *habitat* or repositories of massive and stratiform iron-ores of all descriptions.

the greater number of instances are with remarkably pure and persistent limestones, comparatively free from intercalations of argillaceous matter, also a residual product of rock-decay, and invariably accompanying ochreous matter in suspension. Again, replacement of limestone naturally progresses from exterior and divisional surfaces. This, as commonly observed, wherever incomplete, has invariably affected superficial or upper parts of formations under gentle dips, and seldom nether parts except under steep dips. Lenticular bodies of iron ores, not purely concretionary, are very rarely if ever found completely enclosed in pure limestone—that is, in any form corresponding to the filling of a hydrographic basin of marine limestone.

Conditions above briefly noticed are well illustrated, as I shall endeavor to show, by the more important developments of iron ores upon horizons of limestones and adjacent transition strata of all geologic periods.

(2.) The geologic importance of the phenomena of displacement of calcium-carbonate by ferrous carbonate was long since indicated by Bischof, mainly, as it appears, on mineralogic or *a priori* grounds.* Pseudomorphous siderite after calcite, occurring in drusy cavities in anarnesite, as described by Blum and Sandberger, was attributed to removal of calcium carbonate by carbonated solutions of ferrous carbonate and deposition of this salt in its place. The same result, as well-known, is produced by reaction of solutions of ferrous sulphate, calcium sulphate being removed.

(3.) Pseudomorphic replacement of calcite by ochreous ferric oxyd was observed by Blum to have taken place indirectly, namely, first by substitution of ferrous carbonate followed by alteration of this comparatively unstable compound. As pointed out by Bischof, it seems probable indeed that pseudomorphs of this type are necessarily indirect—never direct.†

(4) Aside from pseudomorphs by incrustation, pseudomorphous siderite commonly occurs by substitution of anhydrous isomorphous minerals. Pseudomorphism by alteration often succeeds pseudomorphism by substitution. Both processes, as inferred from relative densities, are attended with contraction. In the conversion of siderite into limonite, this, according to Hunt, amounts to nearly twenty per cent.‡ Hence the exhibition of cavities, anfractuositities and dislocations in products of either transformation, as witnessed both on a mineralogic and petrographic scale.

(5.) Whatever be the mode of accumulation of ferrous carbonate in various deposits, it can scarcely fail to be recognized as invariably a secondary product universally resulting from the decomposition of diffused proto-silicates of iron by means

* Bd. II, 1864, p. 154.

† Chem. Geol., Bd. III, 1866, 871.

‡ This Journal, xxvi, 1883, 202.

of carbonated waters; next in frequency, from solutions of ferrous sulphate in reaction with calcic carbonate; and, lastly, from like reactions with ferrous salts from reduction of ferric silicates.

(6.) The stability of this more or less alterable secondary product in fissures and deep-seated strata in an atmosphere of carbonic anhydride or reducing gases, was also long since pointed out by Bischof and W. B. Rogers, as well as its transformation into ferric hydrate through displacement of such gases by atmospheric air.

(7.) The frequent occurrence of limonite and hematite in limestone and their graduation into beds of this sedimentary material, as well as the presence of similar fossils in both, are facts adduced by Bischof to justify the conclusion that iron-ore deposits of this description have had their origin in replacement of limestone beds.* Yet, as by him remarked, replacement of amorphous limestone by ferric oxide obviously cannot be proved mineralogically as in the case of rare occurrences of incomplete pseudomorphs after calc-spar, like the specimen originally described by Blum. But every geologist has nevertheless observed ultimate replacement of limestone by brown and red ferric oxides, whether direct or indirect, among the more common phenomena of weathering. When as sometimes happens this is all but complete, and the original form of the limestone mass is preserved *in situ*, the replacement is likewise seen to be pseudomorphic—at least in a petrographic sense. Dana has given a good pictorial illustration of this kind in describing an occurrence in the Cone ore-pit at West Stockbridge.† The cut is here reproduced. Replacements of shells and parts of crinoids, still more common, are likewise pseudo-

m, and perhaps character of insoluble contents, on the one hand; and local developments of iron-ores, void of anything like regular form, within the compass of a thick limestone formation, and graduating into that material, on the other hand. The latter modes of occurrence (and by inference the former also) are particularly well illustrated by numerous stratiform iron-ore developments in strata of the carboniferous period. These strata are understood by all to have accumulated under specially favorable conditions of environment for the production of the materials of iron-ores through internal chemical transmutations; and to have since subsisted under equally favorable atmospheric conditions for the preservation of alterable kinds of material produced, like siderite and sphærosiderite.

(8.) The possession of many physiographic characters by stratiform iron-ores in common with deposits *in situ*, formed in the natural order of strata between which they are imbedded, or rather enclosed, has naturally led geologists to seek an explanation of at least Carboniferous iron-ores of this description on theories of direct deposition either chemical or mechanical: that is, according to one theory, in original form of ferrous carbonate; or, according to another theory, as the product of transmutation of ferric hydrate in place into the ferrous compound, through successive deoxidation and carbonating agencies, the potential influence of which in the development of this particular series of strata it may not seem difficult to imagine on grounds of either theory. As to further alteration from weathering action, regulated by circumstances of topography and environment, all are agreed.

The same agencies however may well be believed to have been equally potential in clearly recognized processes resulting in the pseudomorphous replacement of limestone by ferrous carbonate, especially in the preliminary work of decomposing fused clastic ferrous and ferric silicates, dissolving their soluble products, and in the generation and preservation unaltered of anhydrous ferrous carbonate in concrete form however produced.

(9.) While dissolved alkaline mono-carbonates, as well known, readily precipitate instable hydrated ferrous carbonate from solutions of ferrous salts, no artificial method appears to have been proposed for the production at ordinary temperatures of anhydrous ferrous carbonate.

(10.) The generation of this natural compound in the form of siderite and sphærosiderite is sometimes attributed to direct precipitation and concentration of hydrous ferrous carbonate in the presence of reducing gases, or of an atmosphere of carbonic anhydride. This presupposes dehydration at ordinary temperatures by some natural process as yet unexplained.

Upon another theory, commonly entertained as a collateral theory by the same geologists who employ the one just stated, its derivation is also attributed to direct deposition through volatilization of free carbonic acid from aqueous carbonated solution—likewise in atmospheres of hydro-carbon gases and carbonic anhydride.

(11) No natural occurrence and therefore no mineral species of hydrous ferrous carbonate seems to have been recognized by mineralogists. A moderately instable white, earthy amorphous hydrate said by Massien to have occurred in the mineral lode of Pontpéron, France,* seems to have possessed the same characteristics as an occurrence beneath an ochreous deposit of a carbonated spring near Laacher-See in the Eifel, but described by Bischof as siderite or the anhydrous salt.† The same locality is famous for exhalations of carbonic acid. Preservation of the artificial product appears to be impracticable except in an atmosphere displaced by carbonic anhydride, or, as easily supposable, by reducing gases.

(12.) Siderite pseudomorphous after crystalline anhydrous calcic carbonate not uncommonly occurs both in hexagonal and trimetric forms, though isomorphous only in the former case. This fact goes far to show that the phenomena of replacement of calcic carbonate by anhydrous ferrous carbonate are not simply those of isomorphism. Yet it is true that in crystalline as well as in amorphous siderite ferrous carbonate is extremely apt to be partially replaced with isomorphous carbonates of lime, magnesia, manganese and zinc. The first three, and sometimes all four, of these carbonates are freely developed even where sparry siderite distinctly occurs as a product of epigenesis, particularly in drusy cavities and fissures

imagine, the problem still remains.—Whence the production of the anhydrous carbonate?

(14.) In this question one is confronted by the remarkable fact that writers within the field of chemical geology habitually fail to discriminate between the two carbonates either in noting rare occurrences of hydrous carbonate, if such they really be, developed in reactions commonly yielding this extremely alterable or evanescent form; or in tracing epigenesis of comparatively stable anhydrous carbonate, either crystalline or amorphous, from like reactions. On the contrary, it seems to have been assumed that chemical reactions, geologically considered, producing hydrous carbonate, might equally serve, at least eventually, to produce anhydrous carbonate. As in many other unexplained instances of dehydration, conceivable only at ordinary temperatures, this phenomenon has probably been supposed to be an effect of inscrutable operations of time. Bischof, for instance, to whom we owe what still stands as the fullest conspectus of this subject, fails to distinguish as such the hydrous carbonate, which as yet appears to be exclusively the product of well understood reactions.

(15.) Now there seems much reason to doubt that anhydrous ferrous carbonate is ever directly deposited from acid solutions of ferrous salts except in circumstances of contact with isolated or solid anhydrous alkaline mono-carbonates, probably at the point of double decomposition, or in the nascent state of the ferrous salt. Such a mode of development, if assumed, must be considered due to the well known isomorphous relations of anhydrous ferrous carbonate and its pseudomorphic tendencies. This explanation appears at least consistent with the phenomena of replacement, both isomorphous and pseudomorphous, of amorphous calcic carbonate; and may perhaps be found adequate to explain most occurrences of crystalline siderite on the theory of its epigenic origin in all cases. Some of these points will now be further considered.

(16.) It is remarkable that although in the earlier volumes of his great work, Bischof was the first, I believe, to point out the importance of replacement of limestone as one mode of genesis of siderite, he assumes in his supplementary volume stratiform developments of this epigenic compound, particularly in Carboniferous series of strata, to have been directly deposited from its carbonated water solution as an effect of volatilization of carbonic acid, and to have been preserved from oxidation by hydro-carbon gases. Yet the constant association in these strata of carbonic acid along with those gases is remarked by Bischof in the same place.* Even by loss of half-combined carbonic acid, however difficult to imagine as taking place in an atmosphere impregnated with the same gas, it is extremely

* Chem. und Phys., Geol. Suppl., Band 1871, p. 64.

doubtful whether the anhydrous salt would be deposited. A no less important difficulty arises as to the *locus* of deposition. If this take place at the surface, the presence of these gases can scarcely be imagined; and if below—conditions are precluded for lenticular accumulations. Beneath the surface conditions exist for deposition by segregation or replacement only.

(17.) In any theory of the genesis of siderite, it becomes necessary first of all to explain occurrences of siderite in lenticular form, as widely distributed: that is, as a product of direct superficial deposition in hydrographic basins; or else of chemical replacement of lenticular beds originally deposited in that manner. Between these alternatives the former seems to me to be quite impracticable.

Lenticular deposits from either chemical or mechanical precipitation are formed exclusively at the surface, that is, in hydrographical basins or bottoms where conditions essential to stability of hydrous ferrous carbonate can not ordinarily be set up, or at least long maintained. Besides, wherever this salt is separated from standing water it must be assumed to pass spontaneously into a higher state of oxidation. Not only does it appear, then, that lenticular developments of ferrous carbonate can not have been superficially deposited, but that this compound can not have been derived from direct precipitation.

(18.) Senft's theory of the genesis of siderite and spherosiderite seems to have been founded on special occurrences of stratiform and nodular clay-ironstone enclosed in clays and shales. These are explained as epigenic products resulting from saturation of buried argillaceous sediments with acid solutions of ferrous carbonate, supposed to yield the neutral salt

probably the prevailing one in the circumstances cited. For alkaline mono-carbonates, likewise resulting from decomposition of silicates, may safely be assumed to be present partly in undissolved or diffused form wherever ferrous oxide is available, or wherever ferrous salts are displaced from solution.

(19.) While such reactions may be readily believed to take place in fissures, particularly in contact with segregations of calcic carbonate, they can hardly be assumed with Senft also to extensively obtain in clay bottoms of standing water, or beneath peat-bogs and marshes, still less in a manner to result in direct deposition in bedded form from water. In such circumstances not the anhydrous salt but the hydrated ferrous carbonate, if either, would be deposited; this however quickly passing into ferric hydrate. Still more likely, ferric hydrate would be directly deposited from solution through dissipation of free carbonic acid. Yet I am not prepared to deny that from the condition of ferric hydrate however accumulated anhydrous ferrous carbonate may eventually be formed by de-oxidation and by carbonating processes. If so, this could be only after the original deposits are buried deep below superficial sediments and so excluded from atmospheric oxidation.

(20.) Hence, perhaps, the more commonly received metamorphic theory of the genesis of stratiform siderite, generally assumed to be stratified. This theory, based on the assumption of relative origin corresponding to the natural order of enclosing strata, involves, in short, alteration *in situ* of ferric hydrate commingled with vegetable matter originally accumulated in hydrographic basins. This process is also supposed to be excluded from atmospheric air under cover of successive sediments.

(21.) Some of the objections to this theory as a general explanation of the genesis of siderite will appear farther on. Especially will it, as I think, be found to fail to explain the prevailing occurrence of siderite and ferro-calcite in association with limestone, or on horizons of limestone, or in lenticular form otherwise than concretionary.

(22.) On the other hand, a theory of its derivation in such circumstances at least, by isomorphous and pseudomorphous replacement of calcareous material *in situ*, not only seems to fit the greater number of familiar occurrences of siderite, and thus to explain the almost universal association of this secondary product with limestone, and the graduation into each other of these two materials of widely opposite derivation; but to be alone adequate to explain the epigenesis and indeed existence of the anhydrous salt. Where of course limestone has been completely transformed into siderite, and all immediate evidences of their relation have disappeared, it may sometimes be found practicable to identify lenticular developments of siderite

with horizons of limestone by stratigraphic relations. Impracticable though this may be in certain cases, it should not fail to be considered that as the thinner and less persistent limestones are the only ones liable to complete replacement, actual stratigraphic or even inferential identification is not in all cases to be expected.

(23.) Calling attention to the possible application of the theory of the formation of ore-deposits by replacement or substitution, Emmons expresses the possibility that "in the older and more crystalline rocks, where the calcareous beds are of limited extent, metallic deposits in large masses like those of iron, may have so completely replaced the calcareous material that little or no trace of it remains."* Complete ultimate replacement of isolated masses of emerged coral-reef by ferric oxide on the island of Cuba was described by me in 1884. To this example I shall again take occasion to refer.

"The limits of the actually demonstrated application of the theory of the formation of ore deposits," as remarked by Emmons in the paper just quoted, "are being every day extended, not only by studies of new districts, but by more careful and unbiased studies of old districts in which a different method of formation had previously been determined upon."

(24.) Argillaceous shales and other miscellaneous ferriferous sediments commingled with carbonate of lime, originally accumulated, or resulting from decomposition of component basic silicates or left behind from evaporation of circulating waters, may in whole or in part be transformed into clay iron-stone or siderite, containing insoluble residues of the original beds. This process is again one of replacement. Divisional parts or prisms of such beds separated by planes of cleavage and



(26.) In the foregoing remarks no discrimination between limestone and dolomite has seemed necessary, nor specific reference to analogous compounds of magnesium in isomorphous relations to those of calcium. Nor, on the other hand, has it seemed important to refer to relations of the same kind subsisting between corresponding compounds of manganese and iron. For the sake of brevity, the same course will generally be followed throughout the present memoir. Yet it will not fail to be considered that epigenesis of compounds of manganese is practically in common with those of iron, and that in fact epigenesis of a given compound of one metal often involves that of a corresponding compound of the other. Quantitatively considered, this according to M. Dieulafait* appears in relative degree to depend less on the distribution of the two metals in the composition of silicates from which epigenesis proceeds, than might be supposed.

(27.) This chemist observed that the heat of combination developed in the production of (hydrous) ferric oxide and (hydrous) ferrous carbonate from ferrous oxide to be respectively 26.6 and 10.0 calories (Fr). In corresponding reactions resulting in the production of manganic oxide (hydrate) and (hydrous) manganous carbonate 21.4 and 13.6 calories were developed.†

When oxygen and carbonic anhydride both in excess come in contact with minerals containing ferrous and manganous oxides, the latter, as may therefore be inferred, will be converted into ferric oxide (hydrate) and manganous oxide (hydrate) and no carbonate will be formed. It is also inferred by Dieulafait that if these gases come in contact with the producing minerals slowly and in quantity insufficient to transform both oxides, the products will be insoluble ferric oxide (hydrate) and soluble (hydrous) manganous carbonate. This serves to explain at least the formation of ferric hydrate comparatively free from manganic hydrate, as well as the separate generation of manganic hydrate comparatively free from ferric hydrate—perhaps in another *locus* of deposition after further transmission of solutions.

Again it is inferred, that as much more heat is developed when ferrous oxide is converted into ferric oxide (hydrate) than when converted into (hydrous) ferrous carbonate, the latter can be formed only in circumstances where atmospheric air is displaced by reducing gases or carbonic anhydride, to the exclusion of oxygen.

* Comptes Rendus, ci, 609, 644.

† The parentheses are mine, the observer ignoring the distinction between hydrous and anhydrous compounds.

ART. XXIII.—*On the Constitution of certain Micas, Vermiculites and Chlorites*; by F. W. CLARKE and E. A. SCHNEIDER.

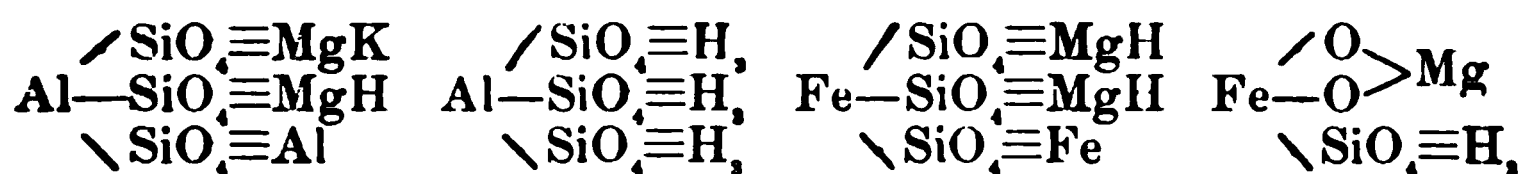
IN a previous paper upon the constitution of the silicates,* we sought to establish some new lines of attack upon the problem, especially with reference to the mica and chlorite groups. The present communication is to be regarded as a continuation of the same research, and by essentially the same methods; although in some instances the experiments have been less elaborate, when elaborateness seemed to be unnecessary. Throughout the investigation the fundamental hypothesis that the minerals studied are substitution derivatives of normal salts has been kept steadily in view; and, as we believe, it has been amply justified.

Of the so-called vermiculites, two only, jefferisite and kerrite, were considered in our former paper; and these were shown to be trihydrated micas, in which the original alkalies had been replaced by hydrogen. To these examples we now add several others; of which two varieties afford excellent checks upon the earlier work. The two minerals in question are an altered biotite from the zircon mine in Henderson County, N. C., and the protovermiculite from Magnet Cove, Arkansas, described some years ago by Koenig. The analyses, with itemized water determinations, are as follows:

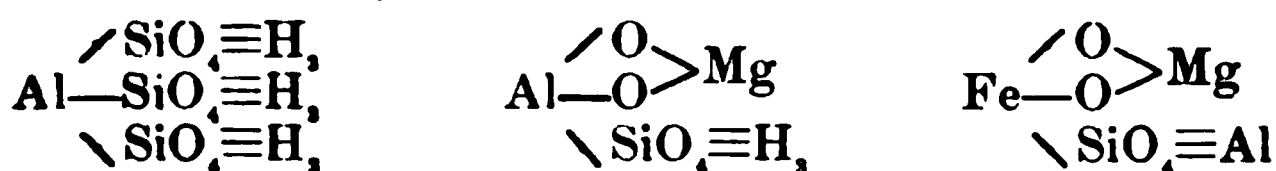
| | Henderson Co. | | Protovermiculite. | |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|
| | Analysis. | Mol. ratio. | Analysis. | Mol. ratio. |
| SiO ₂ | 38.18 | 636 | 34.03 | 5.67 |
| TiO ₂ | 1.68 | 0.21 | undet. | |
| H ₂ O | 11.00 | | | |

The analysis of protovermiculite agrees with that of König as well as could be expected, but is carried out somewhat more in detail. In its appearance the mineral was dark brown, broadly foliated, much decomposed, and very brittle. Before the blow-pipe it exfoliates and fuses easily. The Henderson County mica was also brown, brittle and decomposed, exfoliating when heated and fusing at the edges. Both minerals were examined optically by Mr. Waldemar Lindgren. The protovermiculite he describes as "yellowish, containing in arborescent forms between the plates a great deal of a deep yellow or reddish substance, probably hydroxide of iron. Angle of optical axes larger than usual. Slight pleochroism; thicker plates remain light between crossed nicols." Of the Henderson County mica he says—"contains no titanium mineral. Contains a few grains of a colorless, strongly double-refracting mineral of uncertain nature, possibly zircon. Plates nearly dark between crossed nicols. Angle of optical axes small, but distinctly observed." In the material selected for analysis the impurities noted by Lindgren were so far as possible removed.

The composition of each mineral reduces quite easily, in accordance with the methods followed in our former work, to a mixture of simple isomorphous types. The only uncertainties appear to be in connection with the loosely combined water, which is driven off below 300°. In the Henderson County mica we have the molecules



in the ratio 8:1:3½:3. The loosely combined water is in the proper amount to monohydrate the four molecules; but its actual distribution is uncertain. In the subjoined table monohydration is provisionally assumed. In the protovermiculite we have the three molecules



each plus three molecules of water, in the ratio 14:6:9. As in the case of jefferisite and kerrite, the three molecules of loosely combined water are unlike; two being given off over sulphuric acid, and the third retained rather more tenaciously.

Reducing the original analyses to 100 per cent, uniting all similar oxides to similar type, reckoning FeO as MgO, Na₂O as K₂O, TiO₂ as SiO₂, etc., we get the following comparison between observation and theory:

| | Henderson Co. | | Protovermiculite. | |
|--------------------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|
| | Found. | Calc. | Found. | Calc. |
| SiO ₂ | 39.70 | 39.90 | 34.10 | 34.18 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 14.12 | 14.25 | 14.52 | 14.78 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 13.11 | 13.15 | 7.72 | 7.20 |
| MgO | 16.32 | 17.08 | 22.41 | 22.79 |
| K ₂ O | 6.17 | 6.17 | ---- | ---- |
| H ₂ O, essential | 4.83 | 4.87 | 5.43 | 5.40 |
| " hydration | 5.75 | 4.58 | 15.82 | 15.65 |
| | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.00 | <hr/> 100.00 |

These results, taken in connection with our work on jefferisite and kerrite, and with the mica theory upon which all our formulæ are based, are exceedingly suggestive. Kerrite is essentially a trihydrated hydro-phlogopite. Protovermiculite is the same substance, commingled with a tri-hydrated hydro-clintonite, in the ratio 1:1 very nearly. Jefferisite is a similar mixture of hydro-biotite and hydro clintonite, also trihydrated, and in the ratio 1:1. The Henderson County mica is essentially a biotite, about half way transformed into a vermiculite, and is interesting as a transition product. The hydration of its several admixed molecules is naturally uncertain. At an early date we hope to imitate experimentally the process by which a mica becomes transformed into its corresponding vermiculite.

But although the above-named minerals appear to be very simple in their structure and relationships, a like simplicity does not characterize all of the vermiculites. In some members of the group there seem to be a small admixture of chloritic molecules, and it is even probable that many intermediate

cally by Mr. Lindgren, who found in the hallite some spear-shaped, rhombic, or more rarely hexagonal inclusions of a dark brown mineral, not further identified. His optical notes will be published in an official bulletin, later. Analyses as follows, with itemized water determinations:

| | A. Hallite. | B. Lenni 1. | C. Lenni 2. | D. Lenni 3. |
|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| SiO ₂ | 35.54 | 36.72 | 35.09 | 34.90 |
| TiO ₂ | undet. | 0.18 | 0.58 | 0.10 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 9.74 | 10.06 | 12.05 | 10.60 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 9.07 | 5.37 | 6.67 | 8.57 |
| Cr ₂ O ₃ | ----- | 0.26 | 0.46 | 0.23 |
| FeO | 0.28 | 0.12 | 0.11 | 0.22 |
| MnO | 0.25 | 0.31 | 0.27 | 0.17 |
| NiO | 0.16 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.19 |
| MgO | 30.05 | 29.40 | 27.62 | 28.21 |
| BaO | ----- | ----- | trace | ----- |
| H ₂ O, 105° | 2.64 | 6.40 | 5.70 | 4.99 |
| “ 250°-300° | 1.23 | 2.68 | 1.98 | 1.60 |
| “ red heat | 10.91 | 8.69 | 9.22 | 9.88 |
| | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> |
| | 99.87 | 100.39 | 99.95 | 99.66 |
| Loss over H ₂ SO ₄ | undet. | 6.92 | 5.84 | 5.21 |

In these analyses we at once see that the combined water is mostly in excess of the crystalline water, and that the formulæ deduced must be correspondingly modified. The molecular ratios are as follows:

| | A. | B. | C. | D. |
|-------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|
| SiO ₂ | .592 | .614 | .591 | .583 |
| R ₂ O ₃ | .152 | .134 | .163 | .159 |
| RO | .760 | .744 | .698 | .712 |
| H ₂ O, fixed | .606 | .483 | .512 | .549 |
| Aq. | .215 | .504 | .427 | .366 |

In order to learn something as to the distribution of the hydroxyl indicated by these ratios, resort was had to the process of heating in dry, gaseous, hydrochloric acid, as described in our former paper. From this test, however, the brown Lenni vermiculite was omitted, as being intermediate in its character between the white and the green. Each experiment was made at the temperature 383°-412°.

| | A. | B. | D. |
|---|------|------|------|
| Hours heated | 16½ | 16 | 17 |
| R ₂ O ₃ removed | 3.42 | 1.08 | 1.56 |
| MgO “ | 8.09 | 6.30 | 6.57 |
| Molec. ratio MgOH | .202 | .158 | .164 |

Here it is assumed, on the grounds of our former work, that the magnesia rendered soluble by gaseous HCl is present as

MgOH. Representing this by the symbol R' , the three vermiculites give the following empirical formulæ:

| | | |
|-------------------|--|---------|
| Hallite | $R'''_{100}R''_{100}R'_{100}H_{100}(SiO_2)_{100}O_{100}$ | 215 aq. |
| White Lenni | $R'''_{100}R''_{100}R'_{100}H_{100}(SiO_2)_{100}O_{100}$ | 504 aq. |
| Green " | $R'''_{112}R''_{112}R'_{112}H_{112}(SiO_2)_{112}O_{112}$ | 366 aq. |

These reduce at once, subject to small uncertainties as to hygroscopic water, to mixtures of molecules of the hydroclintonite and hydro phlogopite types, with small amounts of chloritic compounds $Mg(SiO_2)_2(MgOH)_2$ and $Mg_2(SiO_2)_3H_2$. Upon this basis the three minerals become:

| | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|-------|-------------|
| Hallite | $Al(SiO_2)_3Mg_2H_2$ | 3 aq. | 7 molecules |
| | $AlO_3MgSiO_3H_2$ | | 18 " |
| | $Mg(SiO_2)_2(MgOH)_2$ | | 3 " |
| | $Mg_2(SiO_2)_3H_2$ | | 2 " |
| White Lenni | $Al(SiO_2)_3Mg_2H_2$ | 3 aq. | 6 " |
| | $AlO_3MgSiO_3H_2$ | | 5 " |
| | $Mg(SiO_2)_2(MgOH)_2$ | | 1 " |
| | $Mg_2(SiO_2)_3H_2$ | | 1 " |
| Green Lenni | $Al(SiO_2)_3Mg_2H_2$ | 3 aq. | 4 " |
| | $AlO_3MgSiO_3H_2$ | | 8 " |
| | $Mg(SiO_2)_2(MgOH)_2$ | | 1 " |
| | $Mg_2(SiO_2)_3H_2$ | | 1 " |

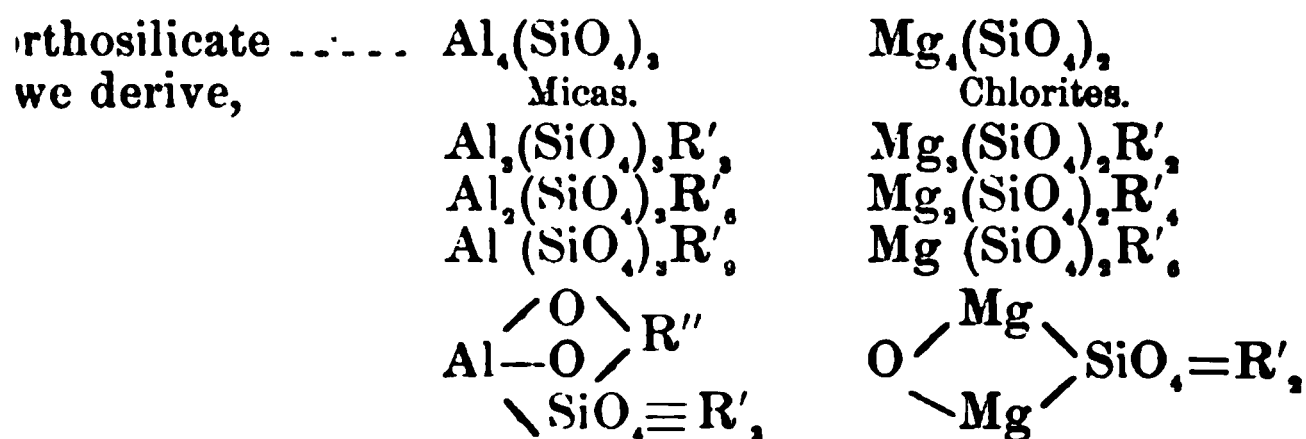
The actual ratios observed were slightly more complex, but the foregoing expressions accord well with the analyses. Here, as previously, we may reduce the analyses to typical form and 100 per cent, reckoning Fe_2O_3 as Al_2O_3 , etc. The comparison is as follows:

Analyses reduced.

| | A (Hallite). | B (White). | D (Green). |
|---------------|--------------|------------|------------|
| SiO_2 | 36.94 | 37.56 | 36.33 |

we consider the nature of the vermiculites, as products of metamorphism, the agreement here shown is fully as close as could be expected. Many well crystallized minerals, fresh from the rocks, are less simply interpreted.

On the 19th of February, 1891, Professor Tschermak read before the Vienna Academy a paper on the chlorite group, in which he referred certain vermiculites to that class of minerals. He set forth some views concerning the constitution of vermiculites, which, however, we cannot discuss until they are published in full.* One fundamental molecule, proposed by Tschermak as a constituent of most chlorites, we adopt for present purposes, under slightly different structure from his. This is the "amesite substance, $\text{SiAl}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2(\text{MgOH})_2$, written by Tschermak $\text{SiAl}_2\text{H}_2\text{O}_7(\text{MgOH})_2$. In default of experimental evidence this may be transformed into AlH_2O_7 , when it becomes part of a natural chloritic mineral parallel with the micas—thus:



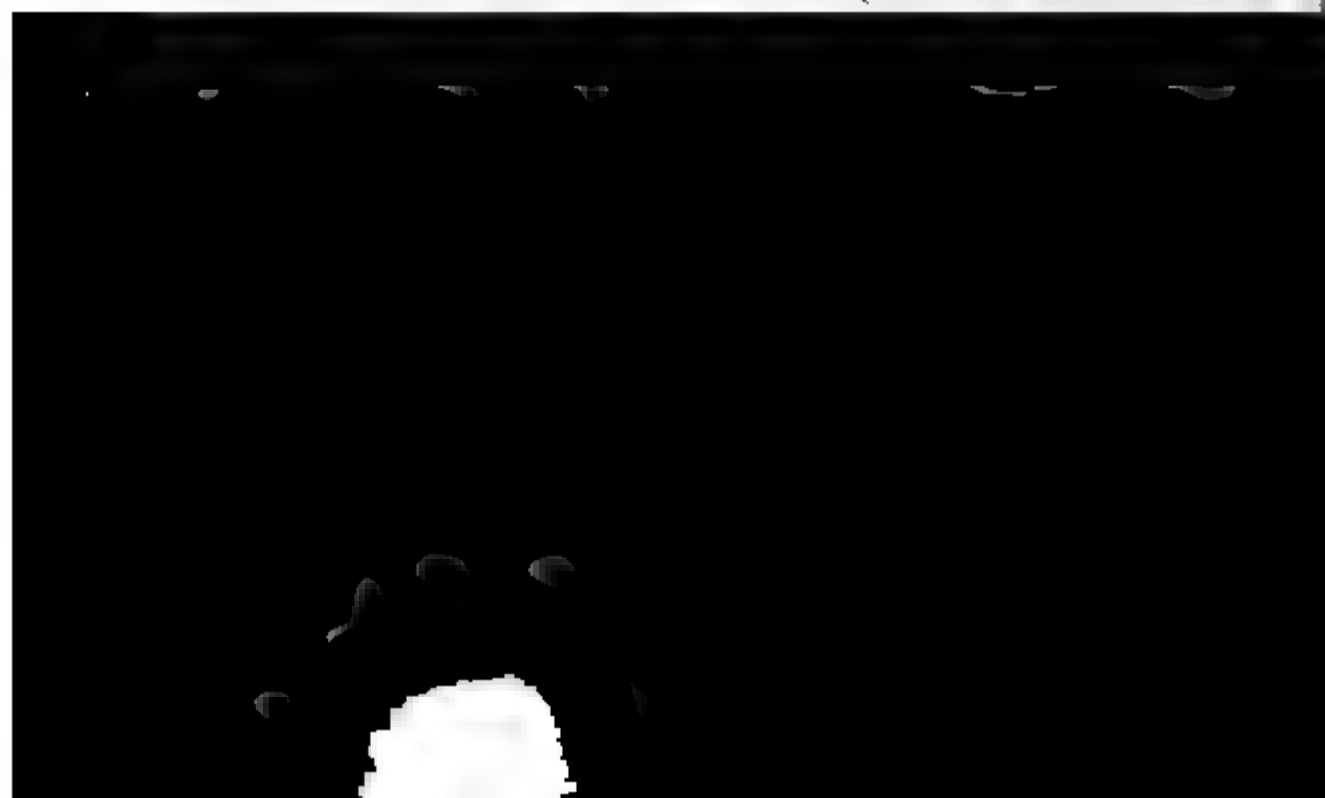
In other words, the "amesite substance" in our chlorite series is the basic equivalent of the clintonite molecule among the micas and is applicable to the solution of certain obscure cases. Some of the vermiculites, as Tschermak suggests, are really chlorites, and two examples have come under our notice in which this view is partly sustained. Both were received from Mr. Jefferis; one from the corundum of Newlin, Chester County, Pa., and the other from the Newlin, Delaware County, in the same State. The Newlin mineral was dull green, and much resembled culsageeite in color, hardness and optically. The Middletown vermiculite was bright golden yellow; strongly exfoliating before the blowpipe and fusible on the edges. It was found upon the property of Mr. James Painter, whence Mr. Jefferis named it locally "Painterite," a name which seems also to have been applied to a peculiar brownish, waxy, feldspathic matrix in which the broad golden laminae were imbedded. A second specimen of it was later collected by one of us. According to

Mr. Jefferis it has appeared in extenso since this was written. We cannot, however, discuss it thoroughly at present.

an optical examination by Mr. Lindgren the matrix of the "painterite" is a mixture of plagioclase, probably labradorite, with serpentine. The "painterite" itself shows hexagonal markings on the surface, and contains, Mr. Lindgren says, inclusions of ferric oxide. Optically he found it to show slight double refraction between crossed nicols, the angle of the optical axes being small but distinct. In the Newlin mineral the axial angle was usually large, being at least 25° . Analysis as follows: A, Newlin. B, Painterite from Jefferia. C, Painterite collected by Schneider. D, matrix of painterite.

| | A. | B. | C. | D. |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| SiO ₂ | 31.23 | 34.86 | 33.95 | 52.47 |
| TiO ₂ | ---- | trace | trace | none |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 17.52 | 11.64 | 12.52 | 21.72 |
| Cr ₂ O ₃ | 0.14 | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 4.70 | 8.78 | 4.40 | 1.23 |
| FeO | 1.20 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 0.17 |
| MnO | 0.20 | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| NiO | 0.33 | 0.14 | 0.23 | ---- |
| MgO | 31.36 | 31.32 | 30.56 | 9.26 |
| CaO | ---- | 0.07 | none | 3.25 |
| K ₂ O | ---- | ---- | ---- | 0.63 |
| Na ₂ O | ---- | ---- | ---- | 5.09 |
| H ₂ O, 105° | 1.08 | 1.64 | 1.56 | 1.14 |
| " 250°-300° | 0.40 | 1.03 | 0.59 | ---- |
| " ignition | 12.15 | 15.75 | 16.46 | 4.74 |
| | <hr/> 100.31 | <hr/> 100.48 | <hr/> 100.47 | <hr/> 99.70 |

Upon treating the three vermiculites with gaseous hydrochloric acid at 383° - 412° , the following results were obtained:



From the remaining ratios, writing MgOH as R' , the subjoined empirical formulæ are directly derived:

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|----|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|
| Newlin | | R'' | R' | R' | H | (SiO_4) | O |
| "Painterite" B. | | R''_{404} | R'_{803} | R'_{146} | H_{1204} | $(\text{SiO}_4)_{590}$ | O_{903} |
| " | C. | R''_{276} | R'_{552} | R'_{207} | H_{1649} | $(\text{SiO}_4)_{881}$ | O_{709} |
| | | R''_{300} | R'_{601} | R'_{239} | H_{1859} | $(\text{SiO}_4)_{966}$ | O_{769} |

Reduced to structural form these give less satisfactory results than the previously considered vermiculites. The Newlin mineral may be regarded as nearly a hydroclintonite, $\text{AlO}_2\text{MgSiO}_4\text{H}$, with an admixture of an amesite-like compound $\text{Mg}_2\text{OSiO}_4(\text{MgOH})_2$ in the ratio 4:1. In reality the mixture is more complicated, and must contain other molecules. The "painterite" C, is wholly chloritic, containing the amesite molecule $\text{Mg}_2\text{OSiO}_4(\text{AlH}_2\text{O}_2)_2$, with the molecules $\text{Mg}(\text{SiO}_4)_2(\text{MgOH})_2$ and $\text{Mg}(\text{SiO}_4)_2\text{H}_2$ in the ratio 16:4:18. These compare with the actual analyses, reduced to typical form and 100 per cent, thus:

| | Newlin. | | "Painterite." | |
|-------------------------|---------|--------|---------------|--------|
| | Found. | Calc. | Found. | Calc. |
| SiO_2 | 32.42 | 31.57 | 35.03 | 35.59 |
| Al_2O_3 | 21.39 | 21.47 | 16.22 | 16.13 |
| MgO | 33.57 | 33.69 | 31.77 | 30.84 |
| H_2O | 12.62 | 13.27 | 16.98 | 17.44 |
| | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |
| MgO in MgOH .. | 6.09 | 8.42 | 8.56 | 9.49 |

The "Painterite" B reduces less easily, but satisfies all the required conditions. It is like C, but contains other chloritic molecules in somewhat complex ratios. It must be remembered that all these minerals are *mixtures*, and the fact that they are reducible at all to simple expressions is a strong point in favor of the theory adopted for the chlorites and micas in general.

A very interesting example of the way in which the chloritic vermiculites approach the serpentines in composition and character has been furnished us by Mr. G. P. Merrill of the U. S. National Museum. It was found by him at Old Wolf Quarry, Chestnut Hill, Easton, Pa., and is described by him as follows:

"It occurs in the form of bright yellowish green inelastic scales of all sizes up to an inch in diameter, associated with a compact tremolite rock which is here quarried and pulverized for use as a filler in paper manufacture. The character of the rock is greatly varied, but at the quarry opening the prevailing material is tremolite more or less altered into serpentine, the vermiculite, and other secondary products, including calcite in both fibrous and granular forms.

The vermiculite, although occurring in plates of considerable thickness readily separable into thin foliæ, never, so far as observed, shows good crystal outlines. Optically it is biaxial

and negative, though the axial angle is small, basal plates in the thin section showing a black cross which scarcely opens at all during the revolution of the stage. Cleavage plates a millimeter or more in thickness show plainly the biaxial character, though the figure is somewhat distorted. Dispersion $\rho < v$.

The surface of the plates is at times plainly marked by sharp lines crossing at angles of 60° and 120° and along which the mineral frequently separates readily. Before the blowpipe the mineral exfoliates and fuses readily on the edges to a thin glass."

According to Mr. Merrill this mineral is sometimes seen in cabinets labelled "talc;" and indeed in its appearance it resembles both talc and serpentine. Upon analysis the following results were obtained, the percentage of K_2O representing two identical determinations.

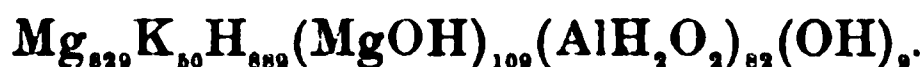
| | Analysis. | Molec. ratios. |
|----------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| SiO_2 | 43.71 | .728 |
| Al_2O_3 | 3.59 | .035 |
| Fe_2O_3 | 0.90 | .006 |
| MgO | 38.58 | .964 |
| K_2O | 2.22 | .023 |
| Na_2O | 0.13 | .002 |
| H_2O , 105° | 0.46 | ---- |
| " 250° 300°..... | 0.09 | ---- |
| " ignition..... | 10.70 | .594 |
| | 100.38 | |

Treated with dry, gaseous HCl at 383° – 412° for $16\frac{1}{2}$ hours 4.36 per cent of magnesia became soluble, corresponding in molecular ratio to 109 mol. $Mg(OH)_2$. Hence the mineral

sume that mineral to be present as an impurity. Deduct-
m the molecular ratios given above the quantity of talc
ed by experiment we get for the empirical formula of
neral the expression



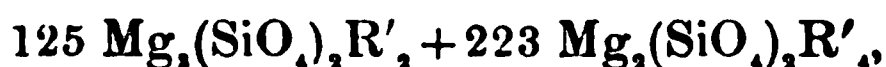
becomes, if the excess of oxygen is regarded as hydroxyl,
 $\text{MgOH})_{100}$ as observed,



nall excess of hydroxyl is probably due to undistributed
of analysis, and may be added to the MgOH , bringing
ter to 118, and reducing the Mg to 820. Then, general-
by uniting all the univalent groups and atoms we get as
mate formula



equals, almost exactly,



It in accordance with our serpentine-chlorite theory.
istribution of the several components of R' is, however,
ear, and remains to be ascertained. No other discussion
analysis appears to give as satisfactory results as this,
e have tried several methods of reduction, representing
s hypotheses.

other mineral examined during this investigation remains
noticed; a pale yellowish-green mica collected by Mr. G.
rill at a granite quarry in Auburn, Me., near where the

Central railroad crosses the Androscoggin river. It
in direct contact with ordinary, broadly foliated mus-
sometimes forming marginal growths about the plates
latter mineral, like lepidolite. Analysis gave:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-------|
| SiO_2 | 46.54 |
| Al_2O_3 | 34.96 |
| Fe_2O_3 | 1.59 |
| MgO | 0.32 |
| K_2O | 10.38 |
| Na_2O | 0.41 |
| F | none |
| H_2O , 105° | 0.71 |
| " ignition | 4.72 |
| <hr/> | |
| | 99.63 |

s the composition of muscovite, which the mica undoubt-
s. The case is interesting, however, as showing a
lary growth of muscovite on muscovite, with a marked
nce in outward appearance between the two formations.

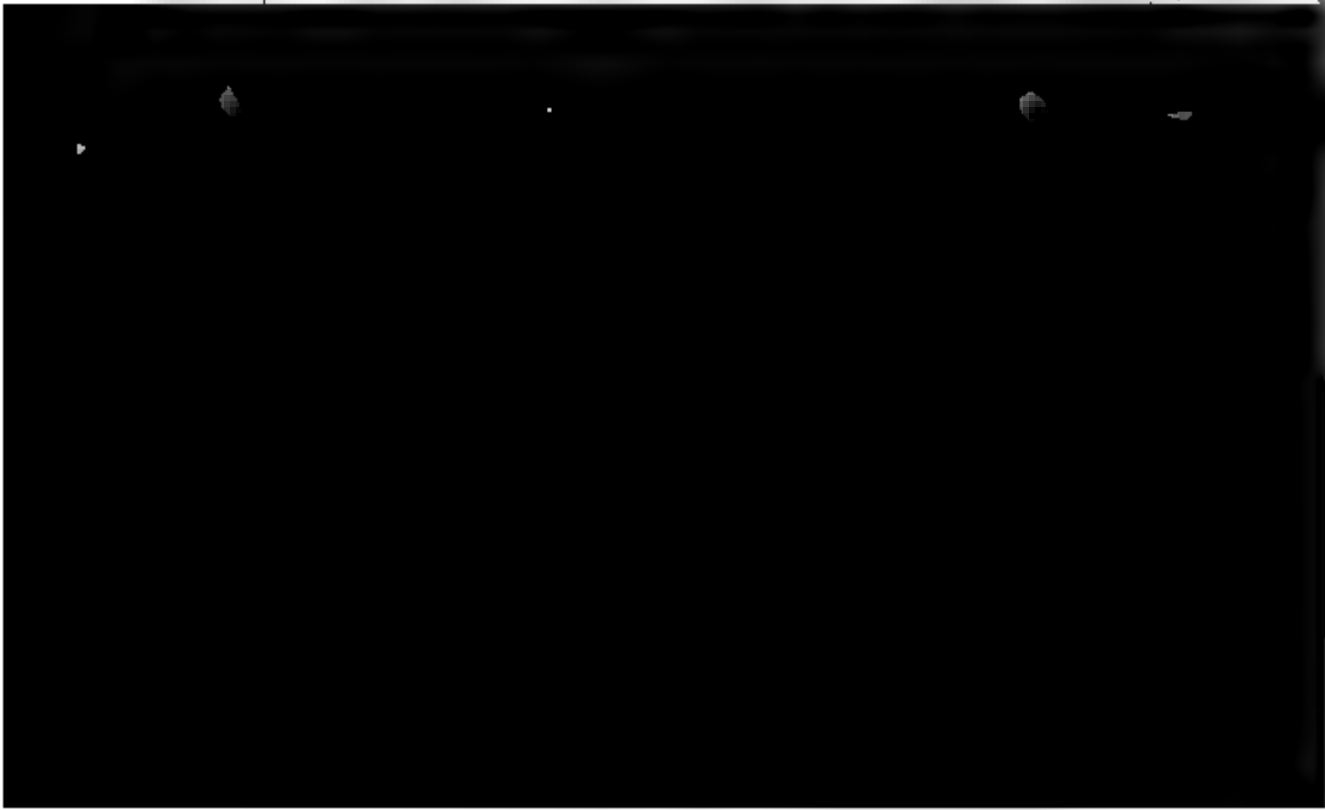
atory U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C., April 27, 1891.

ART. XXIV.—*A Further Note on the Age of the Orange Sands*; by R. D. SALISBURY.

IN a recent number of this Journal, President Chamberlin and the writer set forth what seemed to us sufficient reasons for believing the whole of the Orange Sand series of sands and gravels to be of Pre-pleistocene age. The arguments there adduced we still believe to be sufficient to warrant the conclusions drawn from them.

Since that article appeared, some new facts have come to our knowledge which afford new and more direct proof of the correctness of the position then taken. Until this season's work in the field began, it was not known to us that the Orange Sand gravels reached so far north as the southern border of the glacial drift. They had been searched for along the southern border of the drift north of the area where they are best known, in the hope that they might be found beneath the glacial deposits, but this search had been fruitless, so far as the particular question at issue is concerned.

During the early part of this season's field-work, the writer spent some time in the region between the Mississippi and Illinois rivers above the point of their junction. In this region, in the counties of Calhoun, Pike, Adams and Hancock, the Orange Sand gravels were found to obtain a considerable development. These counties are well north of the southern limit of the glacial drift, and the gravel is uniformly found to occupy a position beneath it. Among other places, this relationship is well shown near Bloomfield, Adams county, where



Apart from the obvious proof of the preglacial age of these gravels and sands afforded by the superposition of the drift upon them, the character of the till affords a further proof of the same thing. If the sands and gravels occupied the region before the ice invasion, they should have made their contribution to the drift. This they have done, and so generously that at many points and over considerable areas the character of the drift has been in very large measure determined by this contribution.

To the arguments adduced in the article referred to above for the Pre-pleistocene reference of the Orange Sand gravels and sands, must now be added the further arguments of (1) superposition of the earlier glacial drift upon them, and (2) the contribution of these sands and gravels to this drift.

Subsequent to the writer's determination of the existence of Pre-pleistocene material in the region indicated, reference to the reports of the Illinois Geological Survey revealed the fact that in the reports on Pike and Hancock counties, the Illinois geologists had made note of the fact that ferruginous flint gravels occur beneath the drift in these counties, and that they had further correlated them with the gravels in the southern part of the state. To them, therefore, belongs the credit of the first recognition of these gravels, as wholly distinct from the drift.*

ART. XXV.—*Note on the Causes of the Variations of the Magnetic Needle*; by Professor FRANK H. BIGELOW.

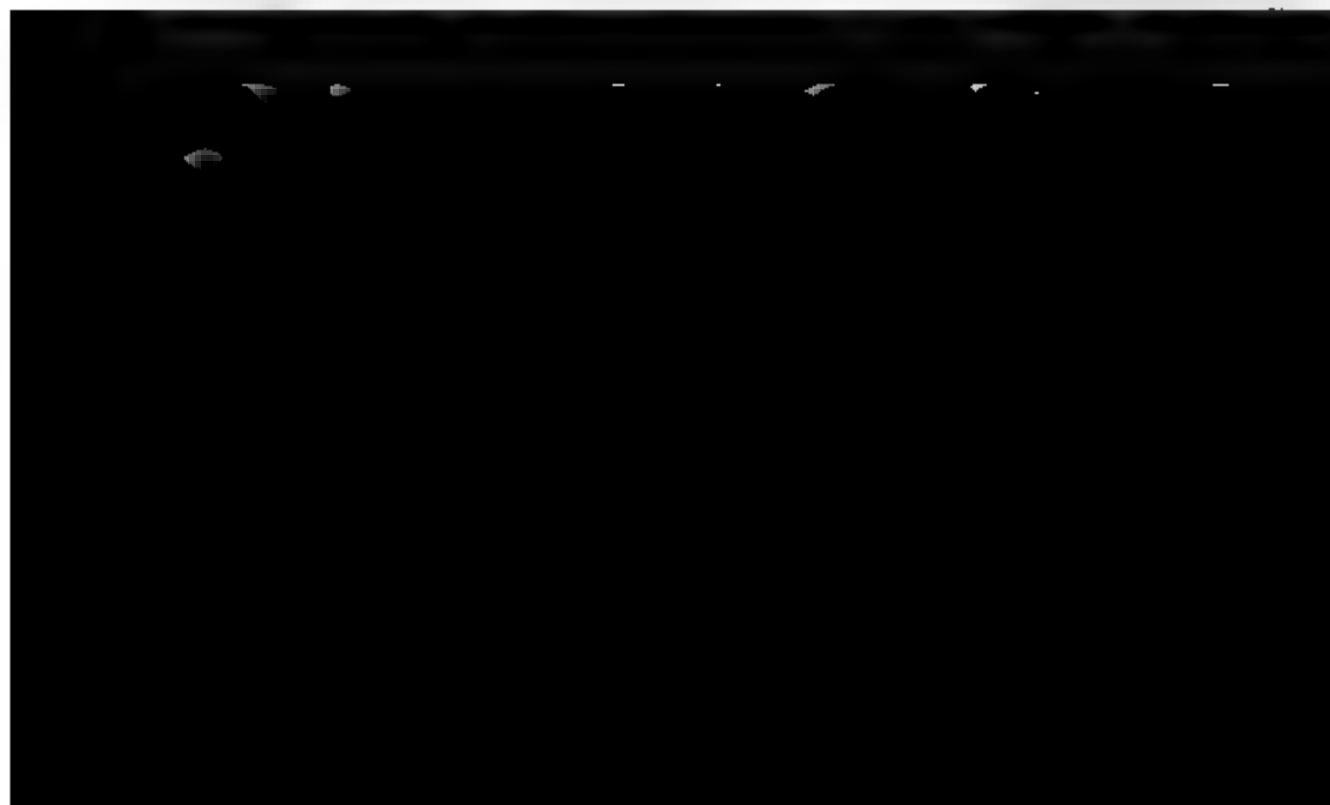
IN May, 1890, I published in Bulletin No. 18 of the U. S. Scientific Expedition to West Africa, a preliminary statement of a new theory of terrestrial magnetism which had been conceived in order to account for the observed variations of the free magnetic needle. Since that time my efforts have been directed towards obtaining a clear conception of the mode of action of the forces whose relations were indicated in the Bulletin, and I am now prepared to add a note as a further preliminary statement of the progress made in this study.

On re-examination of the mode of analysis already published, I find that the main conception is not to be modified and that the successive steps are correct. When making an attempt to reduce the observations by means of this treatment, namely, the combination of current functions by the use of harmonics, it was evident that a very complex system of computation

* I am unable at this writing to refer to the Illinois reports, and therefore cannot cite the exact references to the statements therein made. R. D. S.

would be required. My endeavor was, therefore, to simplify the fundamental treatment so as to secure not only a sound theory, but also a working process for handling the observations. To do this two distinct sets of trial computations were made, first by the theory of moments about the rectangular axes whose origin was in the spherical surface passing through the north end of the needle, concentric with the surface of the earth, and forming equations whose solution would give the required constants of the phenomenon. This also failed to be sufficiently simple and direct to show the action in its general relations. The second attempt was an empirical one, for the time abandoning theory, and building up from the simultaneous observations in various parts of the earth such an exhibition of facts as would display the real nature of the laws behind them. This trial has been successful far beyond anticipation, and that too in a simple and practical form. The theory is at best complicated, as it depends upon the laws of magnetic induction in their most complex conditions, but it unifies and classifies harmoniously all the visible motions of the needle.

My method and result are, briefly, as follows: The month of June, 1883, was selected because of the material collected in the publications of the International Polar Commission applicable simultaneously over a large area of the earth, also because the north polar stations were at that time exposed to sunlight throughout the twenty-four hours. The stations used were: Point Barrow, Fort Rae, Kingua Fjord, Jan Mayen, Bossekop, Sodankylä, Pawlowsk, Wilhelmshaven, Vienna, Tiflis, Za-Ki-Wei, Cape Horn, South Georgien. The monthly means for each hour local time of the horizontal and



certain meridians for the hours, and supposing the permanent pole to take up its position from one meridian to another, there was finally collected upon these meridians representing a series of local hour angles, now referred to the sun as if the earth had ceased to rotate on its axis, an exhibition of what exists over the globe at the same instant of time.

The result is most interesting and gratifying, but I can only indicate now what could be elaborated by a mass of computations. It is difficult to convey any view of the complicated system of lines of force produced by inserting a magnetized or polarized sphere in a field of force, supposing the sphere at rest; if it rotates it is much more troublesome. These references, however, may be cited: Sir W. Thomson in § xxxii, p. 486, *Papers on Electrostatics and Magnetism*, illustrates some of the forms produced in the case of symmetry, that is, the axis of polarization being parallel to the field; in article 434, Vol. II, *Maxwell's Electricity and Magnetism* a similar illustration is found; in article 436 of the same is given an example of the sphere being placed at an angle to the field. The mathematical treatment of these cases, when once the constants involved are known, leads to certain typical lines of force entering the sphere at definite angles corresponding to the latitude of the point. Furthermore when the sphere is rotated the whole system recedes through an angle depending on the constants, as indicated in the Bulletin. My model gives the angles and directions corresponding to such a system, if we take the *radiant sunlight as the uniform field of force, directed positive towards the sun*. The entering and emerging forces are on the respective sides of the earth, and the whole system is receding by about twenty-three degrees. The peculiar form of the polar station lines and the inclination of their planes of action to the meridians is well displayed. The stations all over the world bear the same testimony. The action of the coronal field is entirely similar but not strong enough to appear on the model. The separation of the two fields is merely a question of close computation.

There remains one more important point. The positive direction of the earth's permanent magnetism is from the north towards the south side of the ecliptic y , the uniform field is positive towards the sun z , the motion of the earth in its orbit x , is perpendicular to the field. If these are taken as the usual rectangular x, y, z , they form a consistent positive or right-handed cyclic system. In a word, the permanent magnetic condition of the earth may be principally due to the orbital motion of the earth through the radiant field of sunlight. The rotation of the earth on its axis causes a modification of the direction of the axis of polarization, by diminishing

the angle between the two axes, and as the result of the annual motion may cause it to rotate in a secular period about the axis of figure, or if the magnetization has already become set in the body of the earth, may cause a succession of secular waves to sweep over it from east to west, as is shown to be the case in the history of the agonic lines and the long period deflections of the needle.

This surprising identification of magnetic and light action of the radiations of the sun in direction will be recognized as harmonizing with the conclusions arrived at by Maxwell and Hertz in their investigations. If light is to be studied as a magnetic phenomenon it adds a large field to the work allotted to meteorology. Furthermore, several important physical constants relating to the cosmical action of the sun and the earth, and also the implied nature of the sun and the earth as physical bodies are becoming accessible. Attention is directed to the fact that such a force acting towards the center of the sun, being cosmical or universal, is of the kind required to account for the outstanding motion in the perihelion of Mercury, not included in the development or the law of gravitation or its positive side. My next step is to form the necessary equations of condition and solve them for the constants involved in the magnetic observations.

Washington, D. C., July 31, 1891.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

I. CHEMISTRY.



aluminum, sodium or silver. With alcohol and ether it reacts, yielding ethyl iodide and ortho-boric acid in the former case and ethyl iodide and ethyl ortho-borate in the latter.—*C. R.*, cxii, 17; *Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, (Ref.) 387, May, 1891.

G. F. B.

2. *On Hydrazine hydrate and the compounds of Diammonium with the Halogens.*—The researches of CURTIUS and SCHULZ have shown that hydrazine hydrate $N_2H_4 \cdot H_2O$, prepared by distilling the sulphate with potassium hydrate, is a liquid boiling at 118.5° under 739.5 mm. pressure and having at 21° the specific gravity 1.0305. Its molecular mass at 100° in vacuo is 50, corresponding to the formula $N_2H_4 \cdot H_2O$. At 170° under the ordinary pressure, the hydrate is completely dissociated into diamide and water. At higher temperatures the molecular mass diminishes markedly not reaching 50 again at ordinary pressures even at 300° to 400° . In a lead bath, however, numbers approaching 100 were obtained. Hydrazine hydrate in aqueous solution gave approximately the molecular mass 68, corresponding to the composition $N_2H_4 \cdot (H_2O)_2$. Comparing this hydrate with ammonia, as to its action on indicators, this action was shown to be as sharp in all cases except that of phenol-phthalein. When aqueous solutions of hydrazine are neutralized with a haloid acid, and evaporated first in the water-bath, then over potassium hydrate, halogen-diammonium salts are formed, by preference with two equivalents of acid. The bromide and iodide with one equivalent of acid are formed when the free halogen is made to act on an alcoholic solution of hydrazine, a portion of the hydrazine being decomposed. The bi-acid salts crystallize in the regular system, are soluble in water, almost insoluble in alcohol. The mon-acid salts are easily soluble in water and warm alcohol. Tri-hydrazine di-iodhydrate $(N_2H_4)_3 \cdot (HI)_2$ is formed when iodine is added to an alcoholic solution of hydrazine so long as crystals appear. As to the molecular mass of the halogen diammonium compounds in aqueous solution, it is found to be with the mono-halogenides, the fluoride and the sulphate equal to one-half, with the di-halogenides generally equal to one-fourth and with the tri-hydrazine di-iodhydrate equal to one-fifth the simplest formula.—*J. pr. Ch.*, lii, 521; *Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, (Ref.) 256, Apr. 1891.

G. F. B.

3. *On the Synthesis of Indigo-carmine.*—HEYMANN has succeeded in effecting the synthesis of indigo-carmin, the disulphide of indigo, by acting upon phenyl-glycocoll with fuming sulphuric acid. If, for example, phenyl-glycocoll be mixed in a test tube with ten to twenty times its mass of fuming sulphuric acid containing 20 to 25 per cent of sulphuric oxide, and gently warmed, it dissolves with a yellow color, evolving sulphurous oxide gas. On pouring the solution upon ice, it rapidly assumes the greenish blue color of indigo-carmin. For its production, the following method gives the best results: One part of phenyl-glycocoll is mixed with 10 to 20 parts of sand and then intro-

duced into 20 times its mass of fuming sulphuric acid, warmed to 20° or 25° , containing 80 per cent sulphuric oxide; the temperature not being allowed to rise above 30° . The glyccoll goes easily into solution with a yellow color which at once with evolution of sulphurous oxide passes into the deep blue color of the indigo-solution. To remove the concentrated acid, the mass is diluted with sulphuric acid of 66° B. The coloring matter is isolated by farther dilution with ice and the addition of salt. As so prepared the product is completely pure indigo-carmin. The colors obtained in dyeing with it far exceed in brilliancy those obtained from the best varieties of commercial indigo. Its identity with the natural product was established by means of its chemical reactions, by dyeing tests and by spectroscopic examination. The yield is about 60 per cent of the glyccoll taken.—*Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, 1476, May, 1891. G. F. B.

4. *Leçons sur les Métaux*, professées à la Faculté des Sciences de Paris. Par ALFRED DITTE, Professeur de Chimie à la Faculté. Premier Fascicule. 4to, pp. 44, lviii, 621. Paris, 1891. (Vve Ch. Dunod.)—To judge from the part of Professor Ditté's book now before us, the complete work will be a valuable addition to chemical literature. It is written largely from the standpoint of energy. In his preface the author says: "The principles of Thermo-chemistry and the consequences which flow from them, teach us not only to explain reactions, but also frequently to foresee them and to discover in advance what phenomena will be produced when two or more substances are put together under determined conditions. On the other hand when two reactions are simultaneously possible the laws of dissociation enable us to define rigorously the conditions of equilibrium which must be established between them. In general a rational application of these principles and these laws enables us to say, often even before making the experiment, why one given reaction is certain to result, while another reaction is impossible; why an action

The notation used in the book is the old equivalent notation ; which seems unfortunate since it is not in accord with that based on the atomic theory now generally employed. The great advantage of considering the heat-changes in all reactions, and the evident care with which the descriptive part has been written, will make Professor Ditte's book acceptable to the chemist. We shall look with interest for the remaining parts.

G. F. B.

II. GEOLOGY AND NATURAL HISTORY.

1. *Composition of the Till or Boulder-Clay* ; by W. G. CROSBY (Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., xxv, 1890).—In this paper Professor Crosby gives the results of an investigation of the glacial deposits in the vicinity of Boston. His analyses show that the proportion of true clay in the till is small and that of rock-flour, or very finely pulverized rock, is large. He concludes that the proportion of stones over two inches in diameter is not over 5 to 10 per cent. His results give for the gravel, 24.90 per cent ; the sand, 19.51 ; the rock-flour, 43.86 ; the clay, 11.67 = 99.94. In his table, each of these divisions of the material, is farther subdivided into coarse, medium and fine. Moreover, he gives his results for each of the different localities studied. In the redistribution of the material by the glacial flood, the rock-flour goes with the clay, adding to its volume, so that the clay-beds embrace fully half of the original material of the till. The rock-flour was found to be essentially quartz-flour—this being the final result of disintegration and the consequent decomposition—according with Daubrée's observation that the milky turbidity of the Rhine, even for hundreds of miles from the Alpine glaciers, is due chiefly to impalpable quartz. It is further concluded that of the material of the till, one-third is probably of preglacial erosion, and two-thirds of glacial erosion. The amount of rock-flour is evidence in favor of this. But the fact does not, Professor Crosby observes, lend support to the view that the glacier "profoundly modified the topography of the glaciated area." These are a few of the important facts and conclusions in Professor Crosby's excellent paper.

2. *Geology of the Rocky Mountain Region in Canada with special reference to changes in Elevation and to the History of the Glacial Period* ; by Dr. G. M. DAWSON.—The eighth volume of the Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada, contains, among its papers, the very valuable Presidential Address of Dr. G. M. Dawson on the above subject. The Mesozoic and Tertiary history occupies 22 pages, and the Glacial history the following 50 pages.

3. *The Greenstone Schist areas of the Menominee and Marquette regions of Michigan* ; by Professor G. H. WILLIAMS. 218 pp., 8vo, with plates and cuts. Bulletin U. S. Geol. Survey, No. 10. The important subject here discussed ably and with great interest, by the author is—the Methods in which a massive crys-

talline rock may be modified by the action of orographic forces. The three methods mentioned—the Macro-structural, Micro-structural and Mineralogical, are severally considered, and the results under each, as recognized by the author, are described in detail, and illustrated by his microscopic study of the Greenstone schist and the associated rocks.

4. *Some Botanic Gardens in the Equatorial Belt and in the South Seas.* (Second paper.)—The voyage from Colombo, Ceylon, to Adelaide, South Australia, is not far from 4,400 miles. After leaving the harbor, land covered with tropical vegetation and shores fringed with mangrove are kept in sight, until the once prominent port at Point de Galle sinks from view, and then a fairly straight run is made for Cape Leenwin. Rounding this, the distant shores of West Australia are skirted as far as the Head near King George's Sound, at Albany, after which no land is seen until Kangaroo Island is reached about the fourteenth day out. The landing is made in a steam launch which runs in all weathers, sometimes in pretty rough water, through an open roadstead, up to a jetty at the Semaphore, the terminus of a suburban railway leading to the City of Adelaide. Passengers by the Peninsular and Oriental line land at Glenelg, a little farther south.

The clouds of grasshoppers which met us at the landing did not presage a very happy condition of things in the fields and gardens. But the mischief thus far wrought by them had been local and hardly so severe as had been dreaded. It was now the middle of December (the southern summer) and the ground seemed dry, but the crops around the city were in good color and strong.

For a comparatively new city, Adelaide is fairly well shaded with trees. The suburbs are attractive. Northeast of the city proper, and within a few minutes walk from the principal streets,

the main attractions of the garden to the citizens. The citizens with whom I conversed were justly proud of the establishment.

The *Victoria regia* house is one of the principal features of the garden, but the condition of the plants at the time of my visit was a disappointment. It seemed as if the method of heating by water from an open boiler might be at fault. It was not easy to see how the water could contain as much air as in the ordinary method of heating by pipes through the tank, and it appeared as if this was at the bottom of the mischief.

The other houses looked well for the season. The selections in them appeared judicious and many individual plants were of exceptionally good growth. Considerable prominence was given to horticultural, and, one may say, utilitarian aspects of vegetation. This doubtless serves to augment the interest felt by the general public, from whom directly or indirectly all the funds come.

A Museum for economic botany, well-arranged, and full of good illustrations of the subject, occupies a conspicuous place in the grounds. Its most attractive department is a collection of the leguminous plants which have proved pernicious to stock. The carpological series is good, and the products of the useful plants are well displayed. In a separate apartment was seen the herbarium of the director, Dr. R. Schomburgh, who was even then prostrated by illness which has since terminated fatally.

Although confined to his room and a great sufferer, the venerable Director received me on two occasions and conversed freely about his plans, all of which looked in the direction of increasing the local interest in Botany and Horticulture.

Very profitable botanical excursions can be made from Adelaide. The hand-book for the neighborhood is a recent *Flora* by Professor Tate of the University. It is handy and accurate. Visitors who may have time for botanical studies in any of the Australasian colonies should be reminded that in almost every large city there can be found a botanist or two well acquainted with the most desirable localities for herborizing. Judging from my own experience in obtaining their advice, these local botanists are not easily wearied in well-doing. Some of the local collections are enriched by notes taken on the spot, and possess great interest.

Melbourne.—It was my good fortune to make the journey from Adelaide through Ballarat to Melbourne in company with Mr. Samuel Dixon, of South Australia, who has acquired an excellent knowledge of the flora, and has occupied himself with some of the more interesting industrial questions connected with the forage plants of the Colonies. The first and last part of this railway journey of about 500 miles was made in the afternoon and early morning, and gave a glimpse of high lands and of the dreary desert scrub, with here and there a view of good soil and rich growth.

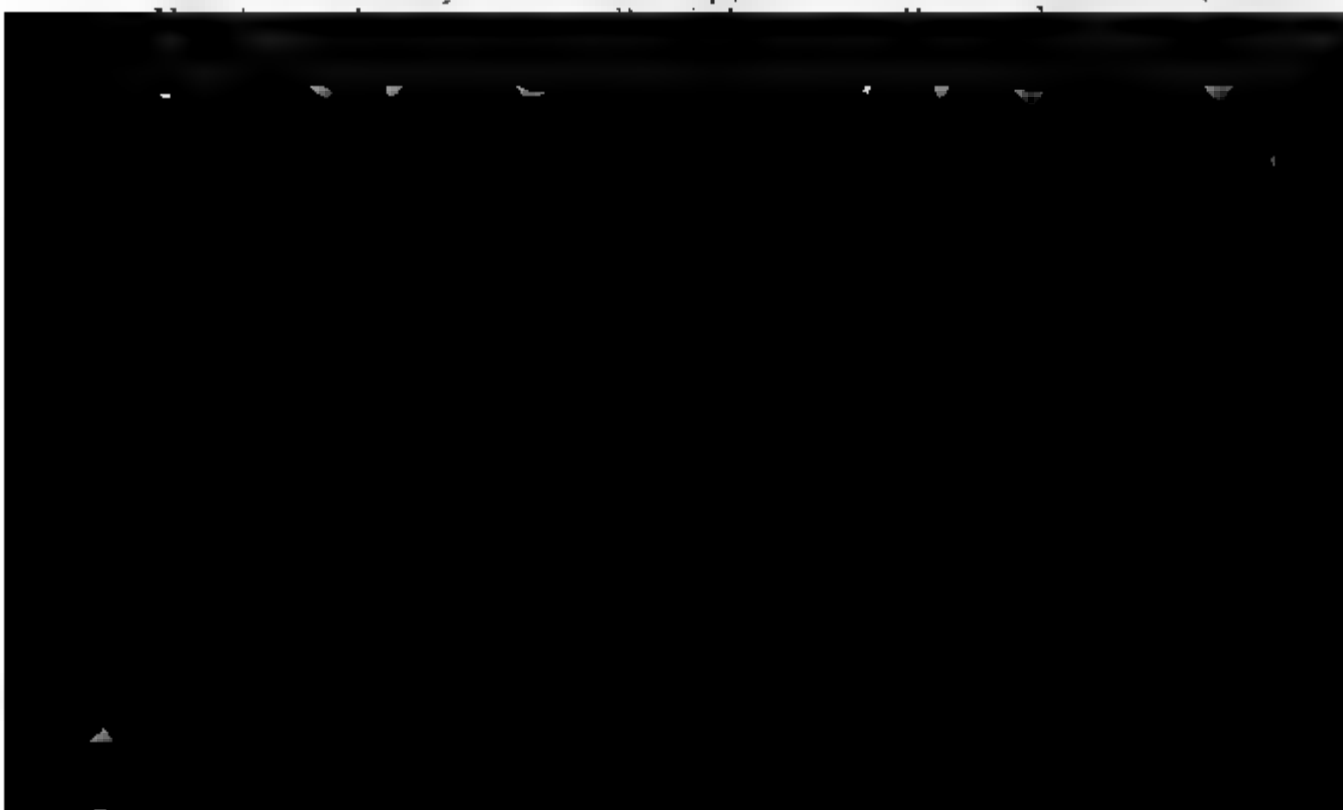
In passing, it may be noted that the railway journey northeast from Adelaide to the famous silver mines at Broken Hill in New South Wales brings before the tourist capital illustrations of true Australian deserts. In fact, the town of Broken Hill lies within sight of one of the spots where the great explorer Sturt was imprisoned by the lack of water. The scanty vegetation furnishes, as so many Australian plants elsewhere do, striking instances of adaptation to a dry climate; the locality is so readily accessible that it should not be left unvisited. Mr. Dixon gave many facts relative to the utilization of deserts and of desert plants in that region, which he has incorporated in an instructive article published in the *Proceedings of the Royal Society of South Australia* (vol. viii).

I had also the benefit of Mr. Dixon's guidance, the following day, in my first informal visit to the Botanic Garden of Melbourne.

The garden is about a mile south of the city itself, and lies on the narrow river, the Yarra, which flows through Melbourne. The situation is good, but the soil in some parts is far from the best. The Australian flora is represented by fine old specimens, if one can call anything old in such a new country, and by young plants which have been added in recent years.

The garden abounds in effective views which are much appreciated by the citizens. As in all new countries, for instance, our own, there is a good deal of pleasant rivalry between the larger places; in the botanical gardens of Australia there is found a convenient object for comparison. The judicious visitor cannot go far wrong in his answers to anxious inquiries as to respective excellences of the gardens, where there is so much to please and so little that calls for unfavorable criticism.

In the Melbourne Garden the most attractive groups of plants are (1) the Proteaceous, composing a striking mass of shrubs and small trees many of which happened to be in flower: (2) the



His Handbook of Victorian Plants is easy to use after one becomes accustomed to the dichotomous arrangement, and it is very helpful in the minuteness of its descriptions. The Baron has done hard work in economic botany as applied to Australia and in the endeavor to make the useful plants of the colonies better known in the Old World and in America. As everybody knows, such work is always a thankless and ungracious task, for the mistakes and failures in the introductions are likely to outnumber the successes. In everything concerning the advancement of the colonies, Baron Mueller has taken a hearty interest and is in every way identified with his adopted home.

Besides the incipient economic Museum at the Botanic Garden and the large collections under the charge of Baron Mueller there is an interesting botanical department connected with the Melbourne Museum. This is under the direction of Mr. J. Cosmo Newbery, and is now being re-arranged previous to its final disposition in the new Museum building. The specimens which illustrate the cereals and their products were nearly arranged at the time of my visit and indicated that the new system would be successful from an educational point of view.

The environs of Melbourne include many municipalities which are commonly counted in with Melbourne proper, when the city is compared with its sister cities. Passing outside the circle of associated communities, the botanist comes upon very instructive botanical ground. One does not have far to go by rail to stand before the giant specimens of Eucalyptus, and by boat to be in the presence of queer Australian plants, like Epacris and so on, growing wild.

Sydney.—The third great Australian Garden is in New South Wales, about six hundred miles from Melbourne, Victoria. For beauty of situation it stands without a rival. It has a commanding position on the shore of the harbor, and possesses remarkable elements for landscape treatment.

The harbor of Sydney (Port Jackson) is one of the most celebrated in the world, usually being associated with that of Rio de Janeiro, as the finest in existence. Like outstretched divergent fingers, promontories extend into this charming sheet of water. On parts of the slopes of two of these the Botanic Gardens, covering about forty acres, have been established. As was to be expected, the representation of native plants is somewhat different from that in the other gardens, owing to difference in the climate. In certain directions, for instance, palms from the smaller islands of the Polynesian archipelago, the garden is exceptionally rich. The specimens are numerous and well grown. A good deal of attention has been paid also to economic plants. The most interesting photographs which I could secure were (1) Individual plants; (2) the Palms of Lord Howe's Island, etc.; (3) the general view from the brow of the hill. To Mr. Charles Moore, the director, I am indebted for many views of the garden, taken some time since. The collection of all these now at Cambridge

illustrates fairly well the wide range of cultivation possible in this favored climate.

Botany Bay of the early navigators lies within easy excursion distance of the city of Sydney. There and in the contiguous peninsulas, one can see growing wild the native plants which gave the place its appropriate name.

In point of fact, the garden at Sydney was visited considerably later by me than those at Adelaide and Melbourne, a journey through Tasmania and New Zealand intervening. But it has seemed best to bring the three larger gardens together in a single sketch, reserving the visit to the economic museum in Sydney for a third communication.

Before leaving the subject of these three gardens, it may not be out of place to call attention again to the deep interest and local pride felt by the people of the respective cities in these establishments. Every intelligent person with whom I conversed upon the subject appreciated the importance of such institutions in a country with undeveloped resources. It was also felt that, since these gardens, and the smaller ones, for that matter, keep in touch with Kew, the botanical interests of the colonies, particularly in their economic aspects, were receiving due attention.

The Botanic gardens of the south do not appear to sustain any close connection with the Universities. They are, of course, available for purposes of investigation, but they are governmental and not academic institutions.

It is frequently said that in the southern hemisphere everything is reversed from what is found in the northern. This is certainly not true of the budgets for botanical gardens. These institutions are everywhere very popular, but I did not find in any case that too much money was provided for the running expenses. In fact, I observed no instance where a somewhat larger income would not have improved the condition of affairs. But the



APPENDIX.

ART. XXVI.—*Notice of New Vertebrate Fossils*; by O. C. MARSH.

RECENT researches on a number of extinct animals have made it evident that several of them are new to science, and that others possess some characters of interest which have not hitherto been observed. In the present paper, some of the results of this investigation are placed on record, and others will be given in a later communication.

CERATOPSIDÆ.

Triceratops elatus, sp. nov.

One of the largest members of the *Ceratopsidæ*, representing a distinct species, is at present known from the skull only, which was secured during the past year. Although this skull is about six feet and a half in length, it belonged to an animal scarcely adult, as indicated by some of the cranial sutures. The rostral bone is not coössified with the premaxillaries as in old animals, and the superior branch of the former bone has its extremity free. The nasal horn-core, however, is firmly coössified with the nasals. It is of moderate size, with an obtuse summit directed upwards. The main horn-cores were quite long, with their extremities pointed and directed well forward. These horn-cores are compressed transversely, the section being oval in outline.

One of the most striking features of the skull is the parietal crest, which was quite elongate, and much elevated, more so than in any of the species hitherto discovered, and this has suggested the specific name.

The length of this skull from the front of the rostral bone to the back of the parietal crest was about seventy-eight inches, and the greatest transverse expanse of the posterior crest was about forty inches. The summit of one of the frontal horn-cores was about twenty-eight inches above the orbit, and fifty-three inches from the base of the quadrate.

This interesting specimen was found in the Ceratops beds of the Laramie, in Wyoming, by Mr. J. B. Hatcher of the U. S. Geological Survey, whose previous discoveries are well-known.

Torosaurus latus, gen. et sp. nov.

Another well-marked species of this group, which may be referred to a new genus, is represented by one skull, and parts of the skeleton, from nearly the same horizon as the specimen above described. One of the most striking features of the present species is seen in the posterior crest, which, instead of being complete as in the skulls hitherto found, is perforated by a pair of large openings. These are in the parietals, but they have the inner margin of each squamosal for their outer border. They are well behind the supra-temporal fossæ, but doubtless were originally connected with them. They may be called the supra-temporal fontanelles. The squamosal bones, moreover, are very long and slender, and distally only show near the ends sutures for union with the parietals. Another distinctive character is seen in the main horn-cores, which are placed well back of the orbit. The nasal horn-core is short, with the apex compressed, and directed forward.

This genus is of much interest, as it represents an earlier and less specialized form than either *Ceratops* or *Triceratops*, both of which have the posterior crest complete. The existing Chameleons show the other extreme, where the outline only of the parietal crest has been attained.

Some of the principal dimensions of this skull are as follows:

| | | | |
|---|--|--|-----------|
| Length from apex of nasal horn-core to extremity of | | | |
| squamosal | | | 80 inches |
| Distance from same apex to front of orbit | | | 21 " |
| Distance from same to front of opening | | | 54 " |
| Width of posterior extremity of squamosals .. | | | 56 " |

The specimen is preserved in the collection of Mr. L. B.

The following are some dimensions of portions of this specimen :

| | |
|---|------------|
| Length of horn-core from top of orbit to summit | 27 inches. |
| Antero-posterior diameter of same horn-core at base . . | 8 “ |
| Transverse diameter of same | 5 “ |
| Length of squamosal behind exoccipital groove | 55 “ |
| Greatest width | 15 “ |
| Width at middle | 9 “ |

These interesting specimens were also found in the Laramie of Wyoming by Mr. J. B. Hatcher.

ANCHISAURIDÆ.

Ammosaurus, gen. nov.

The Yale Museum has recently secured two interesting specimens of Dinosaurs from the Triassic sandstone of the Connecticut valley. In comparing these with the known species of *Anchisaurus* from this formation, the fact became evident that among them are two well-marked genera. One of the specimens, which is described below, cannot now be distinguished generically from the type of *Anchisaurus*, while the one described by the writer as *Anchisaurus major* is quite distinct, and hence a new genus is here established for its reception. The distinctive characters are well marked in the pelvic arch.

There are three vertebræ in the sacrum, but they are not coössified with each other, being free, as in the *Crocodylia*. The ilium is comparatively small, and has a slender pre-acetabular process. The pubes are broad, elongate plates, perforate above, and not coössified with each other. In form, they resemble the corresponding bones in *Zanclodon*, where, however, the two are coössified, and imperforate. The ischia meet the pubes by an extensive union. Their distal ends are slender, directed backward, and closely adapted to each other. This species may now be known as *Ammosaurus major*.

Anchisaurus colurus, sp. nov.

The new species is represented by perhaps the most perfect Triassic Dinosaur yet discovered, as the skull and greater portion of the skeleton were found in place, and in fine preservation. It is smaller than the specimen above described, but similar in its general proportions, yet the two may be readily distinguished by the pelvic arch and posterior limbs. The pubes are distinct from each other, imperforate above, and the distal portions are only moderately expanded. The process that projects backward to meet the ischium is slender, and the face for union with that bone is quite small. The sacrum and ischia resemble those of *Ammosaurus* above described.

The skull is of moderate size, and of delicate structure. In its general shape, it somewhat resembles the skull of *Hatteria*. The supra-temporal fossæ are very large, and the orbits especially so. The quadrate is inclined forward, and the upper and lower temporal arches are slender. Compressed, cutting teeth are present both in the premaxillary and maxillary bones. The lower jaws have similar teeth, and the rami are not united to each other at the symphysis in front.

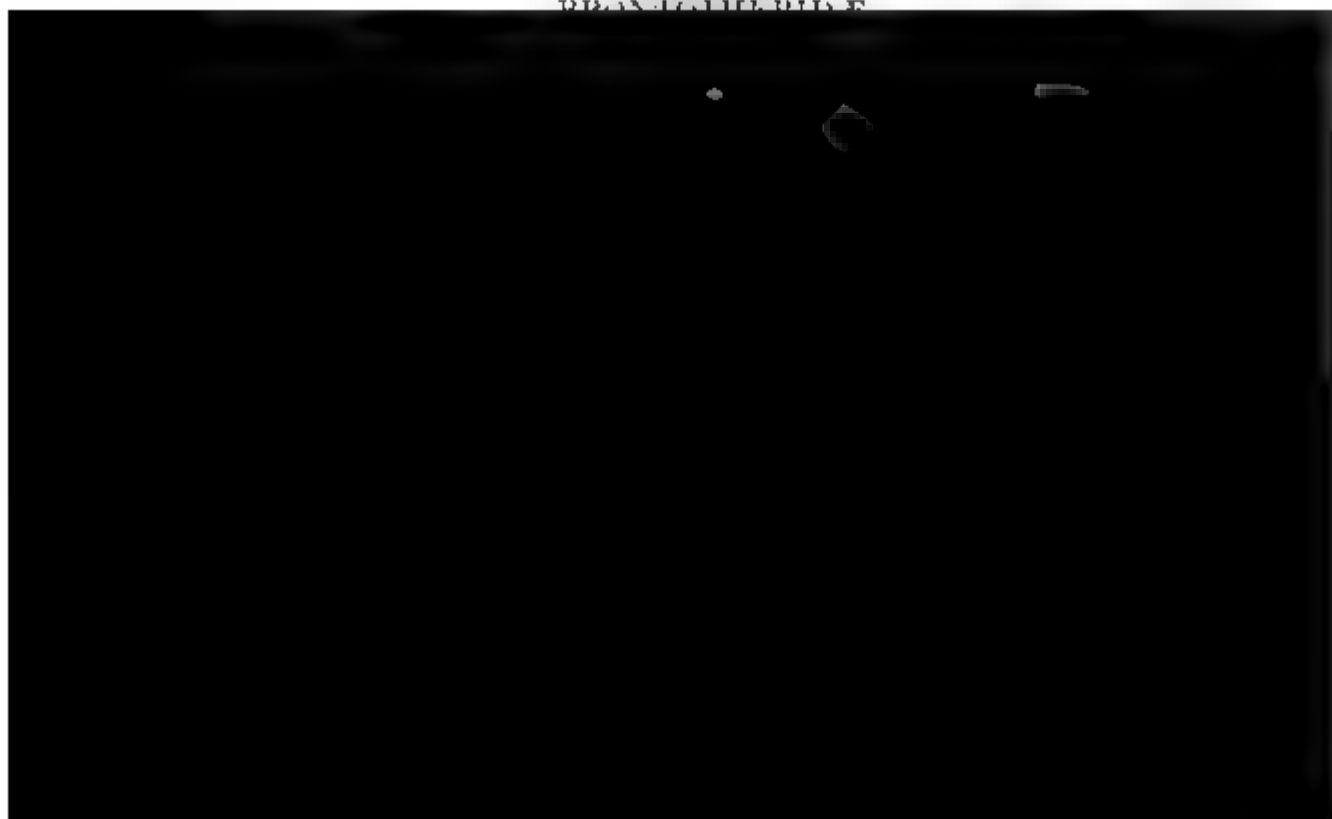
The vertebræ and limb bones are hollow, and the whole skeleton is lightly built. The neck is long, and the tail of moderate length. The scapula is elongate, and the coracoid very small and imperforate. The humerus has a strong radial crest, and the radius and ulna are nearly equal in size. There were five digits in the manus, the first, second, and third being armed with strong claws.

The femur is longer than the tibia, and has a flattened head, somewhat like that of a crocodile. The tibia is short and stout, and the fibula well developed. The astragalus is not coössified with the tibia, and the calcaneum is distinct. There were five digits in the pes, but only four functional, the fifth being represented by the metatarsal alone.

The skull of this reptile is about five and one-half inches long, and the lower jaw four and one-half inches. The scapula and humerus are of equal length, each about six inches long. The femur is about eight inches in length, and the tibia about six. The animal when alive was about five and one-half feet long. The present remains were found near Manchester, Conn.

A more complete description of this interesting reptile, with illustrations, will soon be published.

BRONZELLE PLATE



The length of this skull on the median line is about thirty inches, and the width across the zygomatic arches twenty-three inches. The width across the horn-cores is fourteen inches. The extent of the superior dental series is sixteen inches.

The type of this species was found in the Brontotherium beds of South Dakota, by Mr. J. B. Hatcher.

Brontops validus, sp. nov.

This well-marked species is based upon a skull in fine preservation, which agrees in its main characters with the other species of this genus, but is particularly short and robust. The zygomatic arches are widely expanded, almost as much as in any skull of this group. The nasal bones have only a moderate extension in front, and do not reach the end of the premaxillaries. The free portion is broad and massive. The horn-cores are of moderate size, nearly round in section, and have their obtuse summits directed somewhat backward. The occipital crest slopes forward, and is expanded transversely. The length of this skull on the median line is about twenty-six inches. The greatest transverse diameter across the zygomatic arches is twenty-two inches, and across the summits of the horn-cores, fourteen inches.

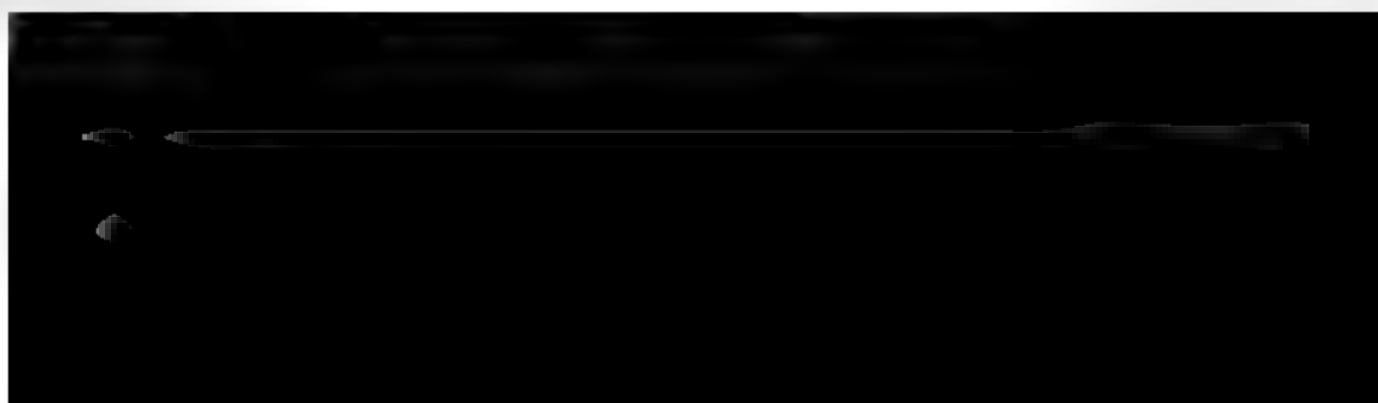
The type specimen of the present species is from the Brontotherium beds of South Dakota, where it was secured by Mr. J. B. Hatcher.

Titanops medius, sp. nov.

The present species is from nearly the same horizon as the type of the genus, but is of smaller size. It is represented by one skull in fair preservation, with the horn-cores and dentition complete. The free portion of the nasals is very small, and projects but slightly beyond the anterior line of the horn-cores. The latter are compressed antero-posteriorly, and project laterally nearly at right angles to the median line of the skull. The two incisors on each side are quite small, and separated from each other and from the canine. There is a slight diastema behind the canine. The first premolar is small, and triangular in outline. The second premolar is of moderate size, and the third and fourth premolars have only an incomplete inner basal ridge.

The width of this skull across the horn-cores is twenty-three inches, and the distance from the end of the nasals to the front of the posterior nares is sixteen inches. The extent of the upper dental series is seventeen inches. This specimen is from near the top of the Brontotherium beds of South Dakota, where it was discovered by Mr. J. B. Hatcher.

New Haven, Conn., August 10th, 1891.



THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

[THIRD SERIES.]

ART. XXVII.—*Some of the Possibilities of Economic Botany;*
by GEORGE LINCOLN GOODALE.

[Presidential address delivered before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Washington, August, 1891.]

OUR Association demands of its president, on his retirement from office, some account of matters connected with the department of science in which he is engaged.

But you will naturally expect that, before I enter upon the discharge of this duty, I should present a report respecting the mission with which you entrusted me last year. You desired me to attend the annual meeting of the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science, and express your good wishes for its success. Compliance with your request did not necessitate any material change in plans formed long ago to visit the South Seas; some of the dates and the sequence of places had to be modified; otherwise the early plans were fully carried out.

I can assure you that it seemed very strange to reverse the seasons, and find mid-summer in January. But in the meeting with our brethren of the southern hemisphere, nothing else was reversed. The official welcome to your representative was as cordial, and the response by the members was as kindly as that which the people in the northern hemisphere would give to any fellow-worker coming from beyond the sea.

The meeting to which I was commissioned was held in January last in the Cathedral city of Christchurch, New Zealand, the seat of Canterbury College.

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Considering the distance between the other colonies and New Zealand, the meeting was well attended. From Hobart, Tasmania, to the southern harbor, known as the Bluff, in New Zealand, the sea voyage is only a little short of one thousand miles of rough water. From Sydney in New South Wales to Auckland, New Zealand, it is over twelve hundred miles. If, therefore, one journeys from Adelaide in South Australia to Christchurch, New Zealand, where the meeting was held he travels by land and by sea over two thousand miles. From Brisbane in Queensland, it is somewhat farther. Although certain concessions are made to the members of the Association, the fares by rail and by steamship are high, so that a journey from any one of the seats of learning in Australia proper to New Zealand is formidable on account of its cost. It is remarkable that so large a number of members should have met together under such circumstances, and it speaks well for the great strength and vigor of the Association.

The Australasian Association is modelled rather more closely after the British Association than is our own. The president delivers his address upon his inauguration. There are no general business meetings, but all the details are attended to by an executive committee answering to our council; none except the members and associates are invited to attend even the sectional meetings and there are some other differences between the three associations. The secretaries stated to me their conviction that their organization and methods are better adapted to their surroundings than ours would be, and all of their arguments seemed cogent. Although the Association has been in existence but three years, it has accomplished great good. It has brought together workers in different fields for conference and mutual benefit: it has diminished misunder-

In the morning of the session to which I refer, we received the daily papers, a cable telegram relative to the Bering Sea culties (which were then in an acute stage). In your stead, I ventured to say, "In these days of disquieting dispatches, when there are rumors of trouble between Great Britain and the United States, it is pleasant to think that 'blood is thicker than water.'" This utterance was taken to mean that we are English-speaking kinsmen, and even before I had finished, the old proverb was received with prolonged applause.

The next meeting of the Australasian Association is to be held in Hobart, the capital of Tasmania, under the presidency of the governor, Sir Robert Hamilton. The energetic secretaries Professor Liversidge, Professor Hutton and Mr. Morton, promise a cordial welcome to any of our members visiting the association. Should you accept the invitation, you will enjoy every feature of the remarkable island, Tasmania, where the meeting is to be held. You will be delighted by Tasmanian scenery, vegetation and climate, but that which will give you the greatest enjoyment in this as in other English South Sea colonies, is the fact that you are among English-speaking lands half way around the world. You will find that their parent Association is devoted to the advancement of science and the promotion of sound learning. In short you will be able to feel at home.

The subject which I have selected for the valedictory address deals with certain industrial, commercial and economic questions: nevertheless it lies wholly within the domain of botany. I invite you to examine with me some of the possibilities of economic botany.

Of course, when treating a topic which is so largely speculative as this, it is difficult and unwise to draw a hard and fast line between possibilities and probabilities. Nowadays, possibilities are so often realized rapidly that they become accomplished facts before we are aware.

In asking what are the possibilities that other plants than those we now use may be utilized we enter upon a many-sided inquiry.* Speculation is rife as to the coming man. May we ask what plants the coming man will use?

There is an enormous disproportion between the total number of species of plants known to botanical science and the number of those which are employed by man.

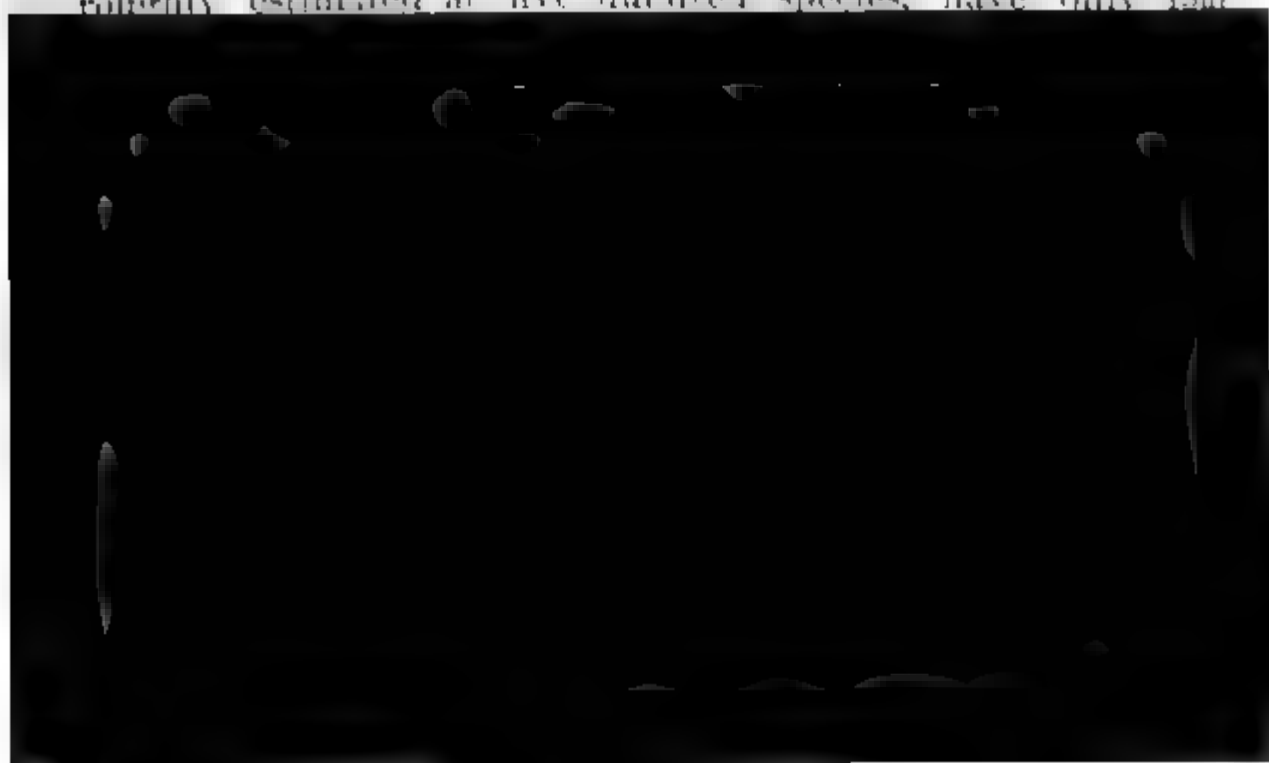
The species of flowering plants already described and named amount to about one hundred and seven thousand. Acquisitions from unexplored or imperfectly explored regions may increase the

aggregate perhaps one-tenth, so that we are within very safe limits in taking the number of existing species to be somewhat above one hundred and ten thousand.'

Now if we should make a comprehensive list of all the flowering plants which are cultivated on what we may call a fairly large scale at the present day, placing therein all food and forage plants, all those which are grown for timber and cabinet woods, for fibres and cordage, for tanning materials, dyes, resins, rubber, gums, oils, perfumes and medicines, we could bring together barely three hundred species. If we should add to this short catalogue all the species, which without cultivation, can be used by man, we should find it considerably lengthened. A great many products of the classes just referred to are derived in commerce from wild plants, but exactly how much their addition would extend the list, it is impossible in the present state of knowledge to determine. Every enumeration of this character is likely to contain errors from two sources: first, it would be sure to contain some species which have outlived their real usefulness, and, secondly, owing to the chaotic condition of the literature of the subject, omissions would occur.

But after all proper exclusions and additions have been made, the total number of species of flowering plants utilized to any considerable extent by man in his civilized state does not exceed, in fact it does not quite reach, one per cent.

The disproportion between the plants which are known and those which are used becomes much greater when we take into account the species of flowerless plants also. Of the five hundred ferns and their allies we employ for other than decorative purposes only five; the mosses and liverworts, roughly estimated at five hundred species, have only four



plants were examined for new uses; primitive agriculture and horticulture extended their bounds in answer to this inquiry. Age after age has added slowly and cautiously to the list of cultivable and utilizable plants, but the aggregate additions have been as we have seen, comparatively slight.

The question has thus no charm of novelty, but it is as practical to-day as in early ages. In fact, at the present time, in view of all the appliances at the command of modern science and under the strong light cast by recent biological and technological research, the inquiry which we propose assumes great importance. One phase of it is being attentively and systematically regarded in the great Experiment Stations, another phase is being studied in the laboratories of Chemistry and Pharmacy, while still another presents itself in the museums of Economic Botany.

Our question may be put in other words, which are even more practical. What present likelihood is there that our tables may, one of these days, have other vegetables, fruits and cereals, than those which we use now? What chance is there that new fibers may supplement or even replace those which we spin and weave, that woven fabrics may take on new vegetable colors, that flowers and leaves may yield new perfumes and flavors? What probability is there that new remedial agents may be found among plants neglected or now wholly unknown? The answer which I shall attempt is not in the nature of a prophecy; it can claim no rank higher than that of a reasonable conjecture.

At the outset it must be said that synthetic chemistry has made and is making some exceedingly short cuts across this field of research, giving us artificial dyes, odors, flavors, and medicinal substances, of such excellence that it sometimes seems as if before long the old-fashioned chemical processes in the plant itself would play only a subordinate part. But although there is no telling where the triumphs of chemical synthesis will end, it is not probable that it will ever interfere essentially with certain classes of economic plants. It is impossible to conceive of a synthetic fiber or a synthetic fruit. Chemistry gives us fruit-ethers and fruit-acids, and after a while may provide us with a true artificial sugar and amorphous starch; but artificial fruits worth the eating or artificial fibers worth the spinning are not coming in our day.

Despite the extraordinary achievements of synthetic chemistry, the world must be content to accept for a long time to come, the results of the intelligent labor of the cultivator of the soil and the explorer of the forest. Improvement of the good plants we now utilize, and the discovery of new ones must remain the care of large numbers of diligent students

and assiduous workmen. So that, in fact, our question resolves itself into this: can these practical investigators hope to make any substantial advance?

It will be well to glance first at the manner in which our wild and cultivated plants have been singled out for use. We shall, in the case of each class, allude to the methods by which the selected plants have been improved, or their products fully utilized. Thus looking the ground over, although not minutely, we can see what new plants are likely to be added to our list. Our illustrations can, at the best, be only fragmentary.

We shall not have time to treat the different divisions of the subject in precisely the proportions which would be demanded by an exhaustive essay; an address on an occasion like this must pass lightly over some matters which other opportunities for discussion could properly examine with great fulness. Unfortunately, some of the minor topics which must be thus passed by, possess considerable popular interest; one of these is the first subordinate question introductory to our task, namely, how were our useful cultivated and wild plants selected for use?

A study of the early history of plants employed for ceremonial purposes, in religious solemnities, in incantations, and for medicinal uses, shows how slender has sometimes been the claim of certain plants to the possession of any real utility. But some of the plants which have been brought to notice in these ways have afterwards been found to be utilizable in some fashion or other. This is often seen in the cases of the plants which have been suggested for medicinal use through the absurd doctrine of signatures.

It seems, then, that except in modern times, useful plants

only six of them are likely to be very familiar to you, namely, wheat, rice, barley, oats, rye and maize. The last of these is of American origin, despite doubts which have been cast upon it. It was not known in the Old World until after the discovery of the New. It has probably been very long in cultivation. The others all belong to the Old World. Wheat and barley have been cultivated from the earliest times; according to De Candolle, the chief authority in these matters, about four thousand years. Later came rye and oats, both of which have been known in cultivation for at least two thousand years. Even the shorter of these periods gives time enough for wide variation, and as is to be expected there are numerous varieties of them all. For instance, Vilmorin, in 1880, figured sixty-six varieties of wheat with plainly distinguishable characters.⁶

If the Chinese records are to be trusted, rice has been cultivated for a period much longer than that assigned by our history and traditions to the other cereals, and the varieties are correspondingly numerous. It is said that in Japan above three hundred varieties are grown on irrigated lands, and more than one hundred on uplands.⁶

With the possible exception of rice, not one of the species of cereals is certainly known in the wild state.⁷ Now and then specimens have been gathered in the East which can be referred to the probable types from which our varieties have sprung, but doubt has been thrown upon everyone of these cases. It has been shown conclusively that it is easy for a plant to escape from cultivation and persist in its new home even for a long time in a near approximation to cultivated form. Hence, we are forced to receive all statements regarding the wild forms with caution. But it may be safely said that if all the varieties of cereals which we now cultivate were to be swept out of existence, we could hardly know where to turn for wild species with which to begin again. We could not know with certainty.

To bring this fact a little more vividly to our minds, let us suppose a case. Let us imagine that a blight without parallel has brought to extinction all the forms of wheat, rice, rye, oats, barley and maize, now in cultivation, but without affecting the other grasses or any other form of vegetable food. Mankind would be obliged to subsist upon the other kindly fruits of the earth; upon root-crops, tubers, leguminous seeds, and so on. Some of the substitutions might be amusing in any other time than that of a threatened famine. Others would be far from appetizing under any condition, and only a few would be wholly satisfying even to the most pronounced vegetarian. In short, it would seem, from the first, that the cereals fill a place occupied by no other plants. The composition of the grains

is theoretically and practically almost perfect as regards food ratio between the nitrogenous matters and the starch group; and the food value, as it is termed, is high. But aside from these considerations, it would be seen that for safety of preservation through considerable periods, and for convenience of transportation, the cereals take highest rank. Pressure would come from every side to compel us to find equivalents for the lost grains. From this predicament I believe that the well-equipped Experiment Stations and the Agricultural Departments in Europe and America would by and by extricate us. Continuing this hypothetical case, let us next inquire how the Stations would probably go to work in the up-hill task of making partially good a well-nigh irreparable loss.

The whole group of relatives of the lost cereals would be passed in strict review. Size of grain, strength and vigor and plasticity of stock, adaptability to different surroundings, and flexibility in variation would be examined with scrupulous care.

But the range of experiment would, under the circumstances, extend far beyond the relatives of our present cereals. It would embrace an examination of the other grasses which are even now cultivated for their grains, but which are so little known outside of their own limit, that it is a surprise to hear about them. For example, the Millets, great and small, would be investigated. These grains, so little known here, form an important crop in certain parts of the east. One of the leading authorities on the subject¹ states that the Millets constitute "a more important crop" in India "than either Rice or Wheat, and are grown more extensively, being raised from Madras in the south to Rajputana in the north. They occupy about eighty-three per cent of the food-grain area in Bombay and Sindh.

impossible for us to ignore the fact that there appear to be occasions in the life of a species when it seems to be peculiarly susceptible to the influences of its surroundings.¹⁰ A species, like a carefully laden ship, represents a balancing of forces within and without. Disturbance may come through variation from within, as from a shifting of the cargo, or, in some cases from without. We may suppose both forces to be active in producing variation, a change in the internal condition rendering the plant more susceptible to any change in its surroundings. Under the influence of any marked disturbance, a state of unstable equilibrium may be brought about, at which times the species as such is easily acted upon by very slight agencies.

One of the most marked of these derangements is a consequent of cross-breeding within the extreme limits of varieties. The resultant forms in such cases can persist only by close breeding or by propagation from buds or the equivalents of buds. Disturbances like these arise unexpectedly in the ordinary course of nature, giving us sports of various kinds. These critical periods however, are not unwelcome, since skillful cultivators can take advantage of them. In this very field much has been accomplished. An attentive study of the sagacious work done by Thomas Andrew Knight shows to what extent this can be done.¹¹ But we must confess that it would be absolutely impossible to predict with certainty how long or how short would be the time before new cereals or acceptable equivalents for them would be provided. Upheld by the confidence which I have in the intelligence, ingenuity, and energy of our Experiment Stations, I may say that the time would not probably exceed that of two generations of our race, or half a century.

In now laying aside our hypothetical illustration, I venture to ask why it is that our Experiment Stations and other institutions dealing with plants and their improvement, do not undertake investigations like those which I have sketched? Why are not some of the grasses other than our present cereals studied with reference to their adoption as food grains? One of these species will naturally suggest itself to you all, namely, the Wild Rice of the Lakes.¹² Observations have shown that, were it not for the difficulty of harvesting these grains which fall too easily when they are ripe, they might be utilized. But attentive search might find or educe some variety of *Zizania*, with a more persistent grain and a better yield. There are two of our sea-shore grasses which have excellent grains, but are of small yield. Why are not these, or better ones which might be suggested by observation, taken in hand?

The reason is plain. We are all content to move along in lines of least resistance, and are disinclined to make a fresh start. It is merely leaving well enough alone, and so far as the cereals are concerned it is indeed well enough. The generous grains of modern varieties of wheat and barley compared with the well-preserved charred vestiges found in Greece by Schliemann," and in the lake-dwellings," are satisfactory in every respect. Improvements, however, are making in many directions; and in the cereals we now have, we possess far better and more satisfactory material for further improvement both in quality and as regards range of distribution than we could reasonably hope to have from other grasses.

From the cereals we may turn to the interesting groups of plants comprised under the general term

II. VEGETABLES.

Under this term it will be convenient for us to include all plants which are employed for culinary purposes, or for table use such as salads and relishes.

The potato and sweet potato, the pumpkin and squash, the red or capsicum peppers, and the tomato, are of American origin.

All the others are, most probably, natives of the Old World. Only one plant coming in this class has been derived from Southern Australasia, namely, New Zealand Spinach, (*Tetragonia*).

Among the vegetables and salad-plants longest in cultivation we may enumerate the following—turnip, onion, cabbage, purslane, the large bean (*Faba*), chick-pea, lentil and one species

ficiently well distinguished to admit of description and in most instances of delineation, without any danger of confusion. The potato has, he says, innumerable varieties, of which he accepts forty as easily distinguishable and worthy of a place in a general list, but he adds also a list, comprising, of course, synonyms, of thirty-two French, twenty-six English, nineteen American and eighteen German varieties. The following numbers speak for themselves, all being selected in the same careful manner as those of the potato: celery more than twenty; carrot more than thirty; beet, radish and potato more than forty; lettuce and onion more than fifty; turnip more than seventy; cabbage, kidney bean and garden pea more than one hundred.

The amount of horticultural work which these numbers represent is enormous. Each variety established as a race (that is a variety which comes true to seed) has been evolved by the same sort of patient care and waiting which we have seen is necessary in the case of cereals. but the time of waiting has not been as a general thing so long.

You will permit me to quote from Vilmorin¹⁶ also an account of a common plant, which will show how wide is the range of variation and how obscure are the indications in the wild plant of its available possibilities. The example shows how completely hidden are the potential variations useful to mankind.

“Cabbage, a plant which is indigenous in Europe and Western Asia, is one of the vegetables which has been cultivated from the earliest time. The ancients were well acquainted with it, and certainly possessed several varieties of the head-forming kinds. The great antiquity of its culture may be inferred from the immense number of varieties which are now in existence, and from the very important modifications which have been produced in the characteristics in the original or parent plant.

The wild Cabbage, such as it now exists on the coasts of England and France, is a perennial plant with broad-lobed, undulated, thick, smooth leaves, covered with a glaucous bloom. The stem attains a height of from nearly two and a half to over three feet, and bears at the top a spike of yellow or sometimes white flowers. All the cultivated varieties present the same peculiarities in their inflorescence, but up to the time of flowering they exhibit most marked differences from each other and from the original wild plant. In most of the Cabbages, it is chiefly the leaves that are developed by cultivation; these for the most part become imbricated or overlap one another closely, so as to form a more or less compact head, the heart or interior of which is composed of the central undeveloped shoot and the younger leaves next it. The shape of the head is spherical, sometimes flattened, sometimes conical. All the varieties which form heads in this way are known by the general name of Cabbages, while other kinds with

large branching leaves which never form heads are distinguished by the name of Borecole or Kale.

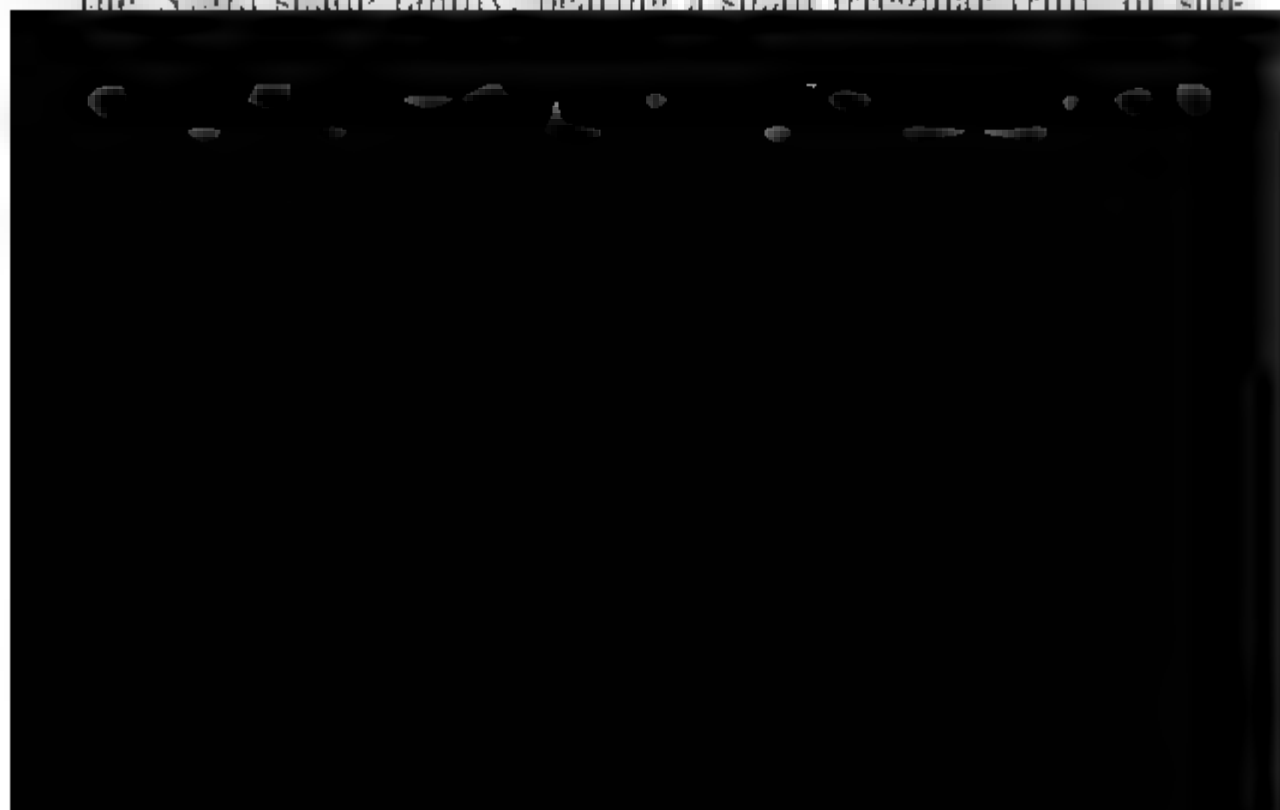
In some kinds, the flower-stems have been so modified by culture as to become transformed into a thick, fleshy tender mass, the growth and enlargement of which are produced at the expense of the flowers which are absorbed and rendered abortive. Such are the Broccolis and Cauliflowers."

But this plant has other transformations.

"In other kinds, the leaves retain their ordinary dimensions, while the stem or principal root has been brought by cultivation to assume the shape of a large ball or turnip, as in the case of the plants known as Kohl-Rabi and Turnip-rooted Cabbage or Swedish Turnip. And lastly, there are varieties in which cultivation and selection have produced modifications in the ribs of the leaves, as in the Couve Tronchuda, or in the axillary shoots (as in Brussels sprouts), or in several organs together, as in the Marrow Kales, and the Neapolitan Curled Kale."

Here are important morphological changes like those to which Professor Bailey has called attention in the case of the tomato.

Suppose we are strolling along the beach at some of the seaside resorts of France, and should fall in with this coarse cruciferous plant, with its sprawling leaves and strong odor. Would there be anything in its appearance to lead us to search for its hidden merit as a food plant? What could we see in it which would give it a preference over a score of other plants at our feet? Again, suppose we are journeying in the high lands of Peru, and should meet with a strong-smelling plant of the Nightshade family, bearing a small irregular fruit of sub-



for preserves and pickles; should we not look upon our experiment in the introduction of this new plant as a failure? This is not a hypothetical case.

The Tomato," the plant in question, was cultivated in Europe as long ago as 1554;¹⁸ it was known in Virginia in 1781 and in the Northern States in 1785; but it found its way into favor slowly, even in this land of its origin. A credible witness states that in Salem it was almost impossible to induce people to eat or even taste of the fruit. And yet, as you are well aware, its present cultivation on an enormous scale in Europe and this country is scarcely sufficient to meet the increasing demand.


A plant which belongs to the family of the tomato has been known to the public under the name of the strawberry tomato. The juicy yellow or orange-colored fruit is enclosed in a papery calyx of large size. The descriptions which were published when the plant was placed on the market were attractive, and were not exaggerated to a misleading extent. But, as you all know, the plant never gained any popularity. If we look at these two cases carefully we shall see that what appears to be caprice on the part of the public is at bottom common sense. The cases illustrate as well as any which are at command, the difficulties which surround the whole subject of the introduction of new foods.

Before asking specifically in what direction we shall look for new vegetables I must be pardoned for calling attention, in passing, to a very few of the many which are already in limited use in Europe and this country, but which merit a wider employment. Cardon, or Cardoon; Celeriac, or turnip-rooted celery; Fetticus, or corn-salad; Martynia; Salsify; Sea-kale; and numerous small salads, are examples of neglected treasures of the vegetable garden.

The following which are even less known may be mentioned as fairly promising.¹⁹

(1) *Arracacia esculenta*, called Arracacha, belonging to the Parsley family. It is extensively cultivated in some of the northern States of South America. The stems are swollen near the base, and produce tuberous enlargements filled with an excellent starch. Although the plant is of comparatively easy cultivation, efforts to introduce it into Europe have not been successful, but it is said to have found favor in both the Indies, and may prove useful in our Southern States.

(2) *Ollucus* or Ollucus, another tuberous-rooted plant from nearly the same region, but belonging to the Beet or Spinach family. It has produced tubers of good size in England, but they are too waxy in consistence to dispute the place of the better tubers of the potato. The plant is worth investigating for our hot dry lands.



(3) A tuber-bearing or *Stachys*, is now in France, for the Paris is the locality where its native country is Japan. Artichoke. At the small and are rather of these defects can indicate that we have vegetables. We in possibilities.

Dr. Edward Palmer as an observer very interesting to American aborigines, there are a few with of them, however, namely:

- (1) The long time
- (2) The difficulty, involving
- (3) The risk of

In the notes to are enumerated.

In 1854 the remarkable relations those of our East only proved that origin, but also of two countries are has yielded us so

without anything else would suffice for a tolerable meal. In the boxes which have fallen under my observation there were sundry boiled roots, shoots and seeds which were not recognizable by me in their cooked form. Professor Georgeson," formerly of Japan, has kindly identified some of these for me, but he says "there are doubtless many others used occasionally."

One may find sliced Lotus roots, roots of large Burdock, Lily bulbs, shoots of Ginger, pickled green Plums, beans of many sorts, boiled Chestnuts, nuts of the Ginkgo tree, pickled greens of various kinds, dried cucumbers, and several kinds of seaweeds. Some of the leaves and roots are cooked in much the same manner as beet-roots and beet-leaves are by us, and the general effect is not unappetizing. The boiled shoots are suggestive of only the tougher ends of asparagus. On the whole, I do not look back on Japanese railway luncheons with any longing which would compel me to advocate the indiscriminate introduction of the constituent vegetables here.

But when the same vegetables are served in native inns, under more favorable culinary conditions, without the flavor of vinegar and of the pine wood of the luncheon boxes, they appear to be worthy of a trial in our horticulture, and I therefore deal with one or two in greater detail.

Professor Georgeson, whose advantages for acquiring a knowledge of the useful plants of Japan have been unusually good, has placed me under great obligations by communicating certain facts regarding some of the more promising plants of Japan which are not now used here. It should be said that several of these plants have already attracted the notice of the Agricultural Department in this country.

The Soy Bean (*Glycine hispida*). This species is known here to some extent, but we do not have the early and best varieties. These beans replace meat in the diet of the common people.

Mucuna (*Mucuna capitata*) and *Dolichos* (*Dolichos cultratus*) are pole beans possessing merit.

Dioscorea; there are several varieties with palatable roots. Years ago one of these was spoken of by the late Dr. Gray, as possessing "excellent roots, if one could only dig them."

Colocasia antiquorum has tuberous roots, which are nutritious.

Conophallus Konjak has a large bulbous root, which is sliced, dried and beaten to a powder. It is an ingredient in cakes.

Aralia cordata is cultivated for the shoots, and used as we use Asparagus.

Oenanthe stolonifera and *Cryptotaenia Canadensis* are palatable salad plants, the former being used also as greens.

There is little hope, if any, that we shall obtain from the hotter climates for our southern territory new species, of merit. The native markets in the tropical cities, like Colombo, Batavia, Singapore and Saigon, are rich in fruits, but outside of the native plants bearing these, nearly all the plants appear to be wholly in established lines of cultivation, such, for instance, as members of the Gourd and Night-shade families.

Before we leave the subject of our coming vegetables, it will be well to note a naïve-caution enjoined by Vilnorin in his work, *Les Plantes Potagères*."

"Finally," he says, "we conclude the article devoted to each plant with a few remarks on the uses to which it may be applied and on the parts of the plants which are to be so used. In many cases such remarks may be looked upon as idle words, and yet it would sometimes have been useful to have them when new plants were cultivated by us for the first time. For instance, the giant edible Burdock of Japan (*Lappa edulis*) was for a long time served up on our tables only as a wretchedly poor Spinach, because people would cook the leaves, whereas, in its native country, it is only cultivated for its tender fleshy roots."

I trust you are not discouraged at this outlook for our coming vegetables.

Two groups of improvable food-plants may be referred to before we pass to the next class, namely, edible fungi and the beverage plants. All botanists who have given attention to the matter agree with the late Dr. Curtis of North Carolina that we have in the unutilized mushrooms an immense amount of available nutriment of a delicious quality. It is not improbable that other fungi than our common "edible mushroom" will be

fruits, of which mention is now to be made, are those commonly spoken of in our markets, as fruits.

First of all, attention must be called to the extraordinary changes in the commercial relations of fruits by two direct causes,

(1) The canning industry, and

(2) Swift transportation by steamers and railroads.

The effects of these two agencies are too well known to require more than this passing mention. By them the fruits of the best fruit-growing countries are carried to distant lands in quantities which surprise all who see the statistics for the first time. The ratio of increase is very startling. Take for instance, the figures given by Mr. Morris at the time of the great Colonial and Indian Exhibition, in London. Compare double decades of years.

1845, £886,888.

1865, £3,185,984.

1885, £7,587,523.

In the Colonial Exhibition at London, in 1886, fruits from the remote colonies were exhibited under conditions which proved that, before long, it may be possible to place such delicacies as the Cherimoyer, the Sweet-cup, Sweet-sop, Rambutan, Mango and Mangosteen, at even our most northern seaports. Furthermore, it seems to me likely that with an increase in our knowledge with regard to the microbes which produce decay, we may be able to protect the delicate fruits from injury for any reasonable period. Methods which will supplement refrigeration are sure to come in the very near future, so that even in a country so vast as our own, the most perishable fruits will be transported through its length and breadth without harm.

The canning industry and swift transportation are likely to diminish zeal in searching for new fruits, since, as we have seen in the case of the cereals, we are prone to move in lines of least resistance and leave well enough alone.

To what extent are our present fruits likely to be improved? Even those who have watched the improvement in the quality of some of our fruits, like oranges, can hardly realize how great has been the improvement within historic times in the character of certain pears, apples, and so on.

The term historic is used advisedly, for there are pre-historic fruits which might serve as a point of departure in the consideration of the question. In the ruins of the lake-dwellings in Switzerland,²⁴ charred apples have been found, which are

in some cases, plainly of small size, hardly equalling ordinary crab apples. But, as Dr. Sturtevant has shown, in certain directions, there has been no marked change of type, the change is in quality.

In comparing the earlier descriptions of fruits with modern accounts it is well to remember that the high standards by which fruits are now judged are of recent establishment. Fruits which would once have been esteemed excellent, would to-day be passed by as unworthy of regard.

It seems probable that the list of seedless fruits will be materially lengthened, provided our experimental horticulturists make use of the material at their command. The common fruits which have very few or no seeds are the banana, pineapple and certain oranges. Others mentioned by Mr. Darwin as well known are the bread-fruit, pomegranate, azarole or Neapolitan medlar, and date palms. In commenting upon these fruits, Mr. Darwin says that most horticulturists "look at the great size and anomalous development of the fruit as the cause and sterility as the result," but he holds the opposite view as more probable, that is, that the sterility, coming about gradually, leaves free for other growth the abundant supply of building material which the forming seed would otherwise have. He admits, however, that "there is an antagonism between the two forms of reproduction, by seeds and by buds when either is carried to an extreme degree which is independent of any incipient sterility."

Most plant-hybrids are relatively infertile, but by no means wholly sterile. With this sterility there is generally augmented vegetative vigor, as shown by Nägeli. Partial or complete sterility and corresponding luxuriance of root, stem,

tioned must be propagated by bud division, and be open to the tendency to diminished strength said to be the consequence of continued bud-propagation. But this bridge need not be crossed until we come to it. Bananas have been propagated in this way for many centuries, and pineapples since the discovery of America, so that the borrowed trouble alluded to is not threatening. First we must catch our seedless fruits. Which of our wild fruits are promising subjects for selection and cultivation?

Dr. Crozier of Michigan has pointed out¹⁶ the direction in which this research may prove most profitable. He enumerates many of our small fruits and nuts which can be improved. Another of our most careful and successful horticulturists observes that the common blueberry and its allies are very valuable for this purpose and offer good material for experimenting. The sugar-plum, or so-called shadbush, has been improved in many particulars, and others can be added to this

At again we turn very naturally to Japan, the country from which our gardens have received many treasures. Referring more to Professor Georgeson's studies,¹⁷ we must mention varieties of Japanese apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, persimmons. The persimmons are already well-known in some parts of our country, under the name "kaki" and they doubtless make rapid progress in popular favor.

The following are less familiar: *Actinidia arguta* and *bilis*, with delicious berries;

auntonia, an evergreen vine yielding a palatable fruit;

lyrica rubra, a small tree with an acidulous juicy fruit;

laagnus umbellata, with berries for preserves.

The active and discriminating horticultural journals in America and Europe are alive to the possibilities of new Japanese fruits, and it cannot be very long before our list is considerably increased.

It is absolutely necessary to recollect that in most cases the variations are slight. Dr. Masters and Mr. Darwin have called attention to this and have adduced many illustrations, all of which show the necessity of extreme patience and caution. The general student curious in such matters can have hardly a task more instructive than the detection of the variations in such common plants as the blueberry, the wild cherry, or like. It is an excellent preparation for a practical study of the variations in our wild fruits suitable for selection.

It was held by the late Dr. Gray that the variations in nature which species have been evolved were led along useful lines, a view which Mr. Darwin regretted he could not enter-

However this may be, all acknowledge that by the hand

of the cultivator variations can be led along useful lines; and furthermore the hand which selects must uphold them in their unequal strife. In other words it is one thing to select a variety and another to assist it in maintaining its hold upon existence. Without the constant help of the cultivator who selects the useful variety, there comes a reversion to the ordinary specific type which is fitted to cope with its surroundings.

I think you can agree with me that the prospect for new fruits and for improvements in our established favorites is fairly good.

IV. TIMBERS AND CABINET WOODS.

Can we look for new timbers and cabinet woods? Comparatively few of those in common use are of recent introduction. Attempts have been made to bring into great prominence some of the excellent trees of India and Australia which furnish wood of much beauty and timber of the best quality. A large proportion of all the timbers of the South Seas are characterized by remarkable firmness of texture and high specific gravity." The same is noticed in many of the woods of the Indies. A few of the heavier and denser sorts, like Jarrah, of West Australia, and Sabicu of the Caribbean Islands, have met with deserved favor in England, but the cost of transportation militates against them. It is a fair question whether, in certain parts of our country, these trees and others which can be utilized for veneers, may not be cultivated to advantage. Attention should be again called to the fact that many plants succeed far better in localities which are remote from their origin but where they find conditions substantially like those which they have left. This fact, to which we must again refer,

both cases is double: to preserve the old treasures and to bring in new.

The energy shown by Baron von Mueller, the renowned Government Botanist of Victoria and by various Forest departments in encouraging the cultivation of timber trees will assuredly meet with success; one can hardly hope that this success will appear fully demonstrated in the lifetime of those now living, but I cannot think that many years will pass before the promoters of such enterprises may take fresh courage.

In a modest structure in the City of Sydney, New South Wales, Mr. Maiden²⁰ has brought together, under great difficulties, a large collection of the useful products of the vegetable kingdom as represented in Australia. It is impossible to look at the collection of woods in that Museum or at the similar and more showy one in Kew, without believing that the field of forest culture must receive rich material from the Southern hemisphere.

Before leaving this part of our subject, it may be well to take some illustrations in passing, to show how important is the influence exerted upon the utilization of vegetable products by causes which may, at first, strike one as being rather remote.

(1) Photography makes use of the effect of light on chromatized gelatin to produce under a negative the basis of relief plates for engraving. The degree of excellence reached in modifications of this simple device has distinctly threatened the very existence of wood engraving, and hence follows a diminished degree of interest in box-wood and its substitutes.

(2) Iron, and in its turn steel, is used in ship-building and this renders of greatly diminished interest all questions which concern the choice of the different oaks, and similar woods:

(3) But on the other hand there is increased activity in certain directions, best illustrated by the extraordinary development of the chemical methods for manufacturing wood pulp. By the improved processes, strong fibers suitable for fine felting on the screen and fit for the best grades of certain lines of paper are given to us from rather inferior sorts of wood. He would be a rash prophet who should venture to predict what will be the future of this wonderful industry, but it is plain that the time is not far distant when acres now worthless may be covered by trees under cultivation growing for the pulp-maker.

There is no department of Economic Botany more promising in immediate results than that of Arboriculture.

V. VEGETABLE FIBERS.

The vegetable fibers known to commerce are either plant hairs, of which we take cotton as the type, or filaments of

bast-tissue, represented by flax. No new plant hairs have been suggested which can compete in any way for spinning with those yielded by the species of *Gossypium*, or cotton, but experiments more or less systematic and thorough are being carried on with regard to the improvement of the varieties of the species. Plant hairs for the stuffing of cushions and pillows need not be referred to in connection with this subject.

Countless sorts of plants have been suggested as sources of good bast-fibers for spinning and for cordage, and many of these make capital substitutes for those already in the factories. But the questions of cheapness of production, and of subsequent preparation for use, have thus far militated against success. There may be much difference between the profits promised by a laboratory experiment and those resulting from the same process conducted on a commercial scale. The existence of such differences has been the rock on which many enterprises seeking to introduce new fibers have been wrecked.

In dismissing this portion of our subject it may be said that a process for separating fine fibers from undesirable structural elements and from resin-like substances which accompany them, is a great desideratum. If this were supplied, many new species would assume great prominence at once.

VI. TANNING MATERIALS.

What new tanning materials can be confidently sought for? In his "Useful Native Plants of Australia," Mr. Maiden describes over thirty species of "Wattles" or *Acacias*, and about half as many *Eucalypts*, which have been examined for the amount of tanning material contained in the bark. In all

*India Rubber.*¹⁰—Under this term are included numerous substances which possess a physical and chemical resemblance to each other. An Indian *Ficus*, the early source of supply, soon became inadequate to furnish the quantity used in the arts even when the manipulation of rubber was almost unknown. Later, supplies came from *Hevea* of Brazil, generally known as Para rubber, and from *Castilloa*, sometimes called Central American Rubber, and from *Manihot Glaziovii* Ceara rubber. Not only are these plants now successfully cultivated in experimental gardens in the Tropics, but many other rubber-yielding species have been added to the list. The *Landolphas* are among the most promising of the whole: these are the African rubbers. Now in addition to these which are the chief source of supply, we have *Willughbeia*, from the Malayan Peninsula, *Leuconotis*, *Chilocarpus*, *Alstonia*, *Forsteronia*, and a species of a genus formerly known as *Urostigma*, but now united with *Ficus*. These names, which have little significance as they are here pronounced in passing, are given now merely to impress upon our minds the fact that the sources of a single commercial article may be exceedingly diverse. Under these circumstances search is being made not only for the best varieties of these species but for new species as well.

There are few excursions in the Tropics which possess greater interest to a botanist who cares for the industrial aspects of plants than the walks through the Gardens at Buitenzorg in Java and at Singapore. At both these stations the experimental Gardens lie at some distance from the great gardens which the tourist is expected to visit, but the exertion well repays him for all discomfort. Under the almost vertical rays of the sun, are here gathered the rubber-yielding plants from different countries, all growing under conditions favorable for decisions as to their relative value. At Buitenzorg a well-equipped laboratory stands ready to answer practical questions as to quality and composition of their products, and year by year the search extends.

I mention this not as an isolated example of what is being accomplished in Commercial Botany, but as a fair illustration of the thoroughness with which the problems are being attacked. It should be further stated that at the Garden in question assiduous students of the subject are eagerly welcomed and are provided with all needed appliances for carrying on technical, chemical and pharmaceutical investigations. Therefore I am justified in saying that there is every reason for believing that in the very near future new sources of our most important products will be opened up, and new areas placed under successful cultivation.

At this point, attention must be called to a very modest and convenient handbook on the Commercial Botany of the Nine-

teenth Century by Mr. Jackson of the Botanical Museum attached to the Royal Gardens, Kew, which not only embodies a great amount of well-arranged information relative to the new useful plants, but is, at the same time, a record of the existing state of things in all these departments of activity.

VIII. FRAGRANT PLANTS.

Another illustration of our subject might be drawn from a class of plants which repays close study from a biological point of view, namely, those which yield perfumes.

In speaking of the future of our fragrant plants we must distinguish between those of commercial value and those of purely horticultural interest. The former will be less and less cultivated in proportion as synthetic chemistry by its manufacture of perfumes replaces the natural by the artificial products, for example, Coumarin, Vanillin, Nerolin, Heliotropin, and even Oil of Wintergreen.

But do not understand me as intimating that Chemistry can ever furnish substitutes for living fragrant plants. Our gardens will always be sweetened by them, and the possibilities in this direction will continue to extend both by contributions from abroad and by improvement in our present cultivated varieties. Among the foreign acquisitions are the fragrant species of *Andropogon*. Who would suspect that the tropical relatives of our sand-loving grasses are of high commercial value as sources of perfumery oils?

The utility to the plant of fragrance in the flower relation of this to fertilization, are apparent to the casual observer. The fragrance of an arbor-vita

esting to note, too, that some of these most modern antiseptics were important constituents in the balsamic vulneraries of the earliest surgery.

IX. FLORISTS' PLANTS.

Florists' plants and the floral fashions of the future constitute an engaging subject which we can touch only lightly. It is reasonably clear that while the old favorite species will hold their ground in the guise of improved varieties, the new introductions will come in the shape of plants with flowering branches which retain their blossoms for a somewhat long period, and especially those in which the flowers precede the leaves. In short the next real fashion in our gardens is probably to be the flowering shrub and flowering tree, like those which are such favorites in the country from which the Western world has gladly taken the gift of the *Chrysanthemum*."

Twice each year of late, a reception has been held by the Emperor and Empress of Japan. The receptions are in autumn and in the spring. That in the autumn, popularly known as the Emperor's reception, has for its floral decorations the myriad forms of the national flower, the *chrysanthemum*; that which is given in spring, the Empress' reception, comes when the cherry blossoms are at their best. One has little idea of the wealth of beauty in masses of flowering shrubs and trees, until he has seen the floral displays in the Imperial Gardens and the Temple grounds in Tokio.

To Japan" and China also, we are indebted for many of the choicest plants of our gardens, but the supply of species is by no means exhausted. By far the larger number of the desirable plants have already found their way into the hands of cultivators, but often under conditions which have restricted their dissemination through the flower-loving community. There are many which ought to be widely known, especially the fascinating dwarf shrubs and dwarf trees of the far East, which are sure to find sooner or later a warm welcome among us.

X. FORAGE PLANTS.

Next to the food plants for man, there is no single class of commercial plants of greater interest than the food-plants for flocks and herds. Forage plants, wild and cultivated, are among the most important and highly valued resources of vast areas. No single question is of more vital consequence to our farthest west and southwest.

It so happens that the plants on which the pastoralist relies grow or are grown on soil of inferior value to the agriculturist. Even soil which is almost sterile may possess vegetation on which flocks and herds may graze, and, further, these animals may thrive in districts where the vegetation appears at first

sight too scanty or too forbidding, even to support life. There are immense districts in parts of the Australian continent where flocks are kept on plants so dry and desert-like that an inexperienced person would pass them by as not fit for his sheep, and yet, as Mr. Samuel Dixon" has well shown, these plants are of high nutritive value and are attractive to flocks.

Relegating to the notes to be published with this address brief descriptions of a few of the fodder plants suggested for use in dry districts, I shall now mention the salt-bushes of various sorts, and the allied desert plants of Australia as worth a careful trial on some of our very dry regions in the farthest west. There are numerous other excellent fodder plants adapted to dry but not parched areas which can be brought in from the corresponding districts of the southern hemisphere and from the East.

At an earlier stage of this address, I have had occasion to refer to Baron von Mueller, whose efforts looking towards the introduction of useful plants into Australasia have been aided largely by his convenient treatise on economic plants.* It may be said in connection with the fodder plants, especially, that much which the Baron has written can be applied *mutatis mutandis* to parts of our own country.

The important subject of introducing fodder plants has been purposely reserved to the last because it permits us to examine a practical point of great interest. This is the caution which it is thought necessary to exercise when a species is transferred by our own choice from one country to another. I say, by our choice, for whether we wish it or not certain plants will introduce themselves. In these days of frequent and intimate intercommunication between different countries, the exclusion

Another illustration is afforded by a water-plant which we have given to the old world. This plant, called in our botanies *Anacharis*, or *Elodea*, is so far as I am aware, not troublesome in our ponds and water-ways, but when it was carried to England, perhaps as a plant for the aquarium, it was thrown into streams and rivers with a free hand. It spread with remarkable rapidity and became such an unmitigated nuisance that it was called a curse. Efforts to extirpate it merely increased its rate of growth. Its days of mischief are however nearly over, or seem to be drawing to a close, at least so Mr. Lynch of the Botanic Garden in Cambridge, England, and others of my informants think. The history of the plant shows that even under conditions which so far as we can see, are identical with those under which the plant grew in its home, it may for a time take a fresh lease of life and thrive with an undreamed-of energy.

What did *Anacharis* find in the waters of England and the continent that it did not have at home, and why should its energy begin to wane now?

In Australasia one of the most striking of these intruders is Sweet-briar. Introduced as a hedge plant it has run over certain lands like a weed, and disputes every acre of some arable plats. From the facility with which it is propagated, it is almost ineradicable. There is something astounding in the manner in which it gains and holds its ground. Gorse and brambles and thistles are troublesome in some localities, and they prove much less easy to control than in Europe. The effect produced on the mind of the colonist by these intruding pests, is everywhere the same. Whenever in an examination of the plants likely to be worthy of trial in our American dry lands, the subject was mentioned by me to Australians, I was always enjoined to be cautious as to what plants I might suggest for introduction from their country into our own. My good friends insisted that it was bad enough to have as pests the plants which come in without our planning or choice, and this caution seems to me one which should not be forgotten.

It would take us too far from our path to inquire what can be the possible reasons for such increase of vigor and fertility in plants which are transferred to a new home. We should have to examine all the suggestions which have been made, such as fresh soil, new skies, more efficient animal friends, or less destructive enemies. We should be obliged also to see whether the possible wearing out of the energy of some of these plants after a time, might not be attributable to the decadence of vigor through uninterrupted bud-propagation, and we should have to allude to many other questions allied to these. But for this time fails.

Lack of time also renders it impossible to deal with the questions which attach themselves to our main question, especially as to the limits of effect which cultivation may produce. We cannot touch the problem of inheritance of acquired peculiarities, or the manner in which cultivation predisposes the plant to innumerable modifications. Two of these modifications may be mentioned in passing, because they serve to exemplify the practical character of our subject.

Cultivation brings about in plants very curious morphological changes. For example, in the case of a well known vegetable the number of metamorphosed type-leaves forming the ovary is two, and yet under cultivation, the number increases irregularly until the full number of units in the type of the flower is reached. Professor Bailey of Cornell has called attention to some further interesting changes in the tomato, but the one mentioned suffices to illustrate the direction of variation which plants under cultivation are apt to take. Monstrosities are very apt to occur in cultivated plants, and under certain conditions may be perpetuated in succeeding generations, thus widening the field from which utilizable plants may be taken.

Another case of change produced by cultivation is likewise as yet wholly unexplained, although much studied; namely the mutual interaction of scion and stock in grafting, budding, and the like. It is probable that a further investigation of this subject may yet throw light on new possibilities in plants.

We have now arrived at the most practical question of all, namely—

In what way can the range of commercial botany be extended? In what manner or by what means can the introduc-

But what is needed is this, that the promising plants should be systematically investigated under exhaustive conditions. It is not enough that an enthusiast here, or an amateur there should give a plant a trial under imperfectly understood conditions, and then report success or failure. The work should be thorough and every question answered categorically, so that we might be placed in possession of all the facts relative to the object experimented upon. But such an undertaking requires the coöperation of many different agencies. I shall venture to mention some of these.

In the first place,—Botanic Gardens amply endowed for research. The Arnold Arboretum, the Shaw Garden, and the Washington Experimental Garden, are American illustrations of what is needed for this purpose. University gardens have their place in instruction, but cannot wisely undertake this kind of work.

In the second place,—Museums and Laboratories of Economic Botany. Much good work in this direction has been done in this country by the National Museum and by the department in charge³ of the investigation of new plants. We need institutions like those at Kew in England, and at Buitenzorg in Java, which keep in close touch with all the world. The founding of an establishment on a scale of magnitude commensurate with the greatness and needs of our country is an undertaking which waits for some one of our wealthy men.

In the third place,—Experiment Stations. These may, within the proper limits of their sphere of action, extend the study of plants beyond the established varieties to the species, and beyond the species to equivalent species in other genera. It is a matter of regret that so much of the energy displayed in these stations in this country, and we may say abroad, has not been more economically directed.

Great economy of energy must result from the recent change by which coördination of action is assured. The influence which the stations must exert on the welfare of our country, and the development of its resources is incalculable.

In the last place, but by no means least, the coöperation of all who are interested in scientific matters, through their observation of isolated and associated phenomena connected with plants of supposed utility, and by the cultivation of such plants by private individuals, unconnected with any State, governmental, or academic institutions.

By these agencies, wisely directed and energetically employed, the domains of commercial and industrial botany, will be enlarged. To some of the possible results in these domains, I have endeavored to call your attention.

NOTES.

* The following are among the more useful works of a general character, dealing with the subject. Others are referred to either in the text or notes. The reader may consult also the list of works on Economic Botany in the catalogue published by the Linneæan Society.

Select Extra-tropical Plants, readily eligible for industrial culture or naturalization, with indications of their native countries and some of their uses. By BARON FERD. VON MUELLER, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., etc., Government Botanist for Victoria (Melbourne), 1888. Seventh edition, revised and enlarged.

At the close of his treatise on industrial plants, Baron von Mueller has grouped the genera indicating the different classes of useful products in such a manner that we can ascertain the respective numbers belonging to the genera. Of course many of these genera figure in more than one category.

He has also arranged the plants according to the countries *naturally producing them*.

Useful Native Plants of Australia, (including Tasmania). By J. H. MAIDES, F.L.S., Curator of the Technological Museum of New South Wales, Sydney. (Sydney), 1889.

See also note 19.

Handbook of Commercial Geography. By GEO. G. CHISHOLM, M.A., B.Sc London, 1889.

New Commercial Plants with directions how to grow them to the best advantage. By THOMAS CHRISTY (London), Christy and Co.

Dictionary of popular names of the plants which furnish the natural and acquired wants of man. By JOHN SMITH, A.L.S. (London), 1882.

Cultivated Plants Their propagation and improvement. By F. W. BURBAER (London), 1877.

The Wanderings of Plants and animals from their first home. By VICTOR HEHN, edited by James Steven Stallybrass, (London) 1885.

Researches into the Early History of Mankind, and the Development of Civilization. By EDWARD B. TYLOR, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., 1878.

¹ The number of species of Phænogamia has been given by many writers as not far from 150,000. But the total number of species recognized by Bentham and Hooker in the Genera Plantarum (Durand's Index) is 100,220, in 210 Natural Orders and 8,417 genera.

² Dr. E. Lewis Sturtevant, to whose kindness I am indebted for great assistance in the matter of references has placed at my disposal many of his notes on

⁹ In order to avoid possible misapprehension, it should be stated that there are a few persons who hold that at least some of our cereals, and other cultivated plants, for that matter, have not undergone material improvement but are essentially unmodified progeny. Under this view, if we could look back into the farthest past, we should see our cereals growing wild and in such admirable condition that we should unhesitatingly select them for immediate use. This extreme position is untenable.

Again, there are a few extremists who hold that some plants under cultivation have reached their culminating point, and must now remain stationary or begin to retrograde.

¹⁰ Gray's Botanical Text Book. Vols. i and ii.

¹¹ *A Selection from the Physiological and Horticultural Papers*, published in the Transactions of the Royal and Horticultural Societies, by the late THOMAS ANDREW KNIGHT, Esq., President of the Hort. Soc. London, (London) 1841.

¹² *Illustrations of the Manners and Customs and Condition of the North American Indians*. By GEORGE CATLIN, London, 1876. A reprint of the account published in 1841 of travels in 1832-40.

"Plate 278 is a party of Sioux, in bark canoes (purchased of the Chippewas), gathering the wild rice, which grows in immense fields around the shores of the rivers and lakes of these northern regions, and used by the Indians as an article of food. The mode of gathering it is curious and, as seen in the drawing, one woman paddles the canoe, whilst another with a stick in each hand, bends the rice over the canoe with one, and strikes it with the other, which shakes it into the canoe, which is constantly moving along until it is filled." Vol. ii, p. 208.

¹³ Schliemann's carbonized specimens exhumed in Greece are said to be "very hard, fine-grained, sharp, very flat on grooved side, different from any wheats now known." *Am. Antiq.*, 1880, 66.

The carbonized grains in the Peabody Museum at Cambridge, Mass., are small.

¹⁴ *Prehistoric Times* as illustrated by Ancient Remains and the manners and customs of modern savages. By JOHN LUBBOCK, Bart., (New York), 4th edn., 1886.

"Three varieties of wheat were cultivated by the Lake Dwellers, who also possessed two kinds of barley and two of millet. Of these the most ancient and most important were the six-rowed barley and small "Lake Dwellers'" wheat. The discovery of Egyptian wheat (*Triticum turgidum*), at Wangen and Robenhäusen, is particularly interesting. Oats were cultivated during the bronze age, but are absent from all the stone age villages. Rye was also unknown," p. 216.

"Wheat is most common, having been discovered at Merlen, Moosseedorf and Wangen. At the latter place, indeed, many bushels of it were found, the grains being in large thick lumps. In other cases, the grains are free, and without chaff, resembling our present wheat in size and form, while more rarely they are still in the ear." 115 species of plants have been identified. Heer, Keller.

¹⁵ *Les Plantes Potagères*, VILMORIN, Paris. Translated into English under the direction of W. Robinson, Editor of the (London) "Garden," 1885, and entitled *The Vegetable Garden*.

¹⁶ l. c., English Edn., p. 104.

¹⁷ According to notes made by Mr. Manning, Sec. Massachusetts Horticultural Society, (Hist. Mass. Hort. Society) the tomato was introduced into Salem, Mass., about 1802 by Michele Felice Corné, an Italian painter, but he found it difficult to persuade people even to taste the fruit (Felt's Annals of Salem, vol. ii, 631). It was said to have been introduced into Philadelphia by a French refugee from San Domingo in 1798. It was used as an article of food in New Orleans in 1812 but was not sold in the markets of Philadelphia until 1829. It did not come into general use in the north until some years after the last named date.

¹⁸ "In Spain and those hot regions, they use to eat the (Love) apples prepared and boiled with pepper, salt, and olives; but they yield very little nourishment to the bodies, and the same nought and corrupt. Likewise they doe eat the apples with oile, vinegar, and pepper mixed together for sauce to their meat even as we in these Cold Countries do Mustard." GERARD'S *Herbal*, 346.

¹⁹ *Commercial Botany of the Nineteenth Century*. By JOHN R. JACKSON, A.L.S. Cassell and Company, London, 1890.

302 *G. L. Goodale—Possibilities of Economic Botany.*

Mr. Jackson, who is the Curator of the Museums, Royal Gardens, Kew, has embodied in this treatise a great amount of valuable information, well arranged for ready reference.

²⁰ *Department of Agriculture Report* for 1870, p. 404-428. Only those are here copied from Dr. Palmer's list which he expressly states are extensively used.

Ground-nut (*Apios tuberosa*); *Aesculus Californica*; *Agave Americana*; *Nuphar advena*, Prairie-potato, (*Potalea esculenta*); *Scirpus lacustris*; *Sagittaria variabilis*; Kamass-root (*Camassia esculenta*); *Solanum Fendleri* (supposed by him to be the original of the cultivated potato); Acorns of various sort; Mesquite, (*Algarobia glandulosa*); *Juniperus occidentalis*; Nuts of *Carya*, *Juglans*, etc.; Screw-bean (*Strombocarpus pubescens*); various Cactaceæ; *Yucca*; Cherries and many wild berries; *Chenopodium album*, etc.

Potalea esculenta = prairie potato, or Bread-root. Palmer in *Agl. Report*, 1870, p. 402.

The following from CATLIN, l. c., i, p. 122:

"Corn and dried meat are generally laid in the fall, in sufficient quantities to support them through the winter. These are the principal articles of food during that long and inclement season; and in addition to them, they oftentimes have in store great quantities of dried squashes, and dried 'pommes blanches,' a kind of turnip which grows in great abundance in those regions. . . . These are dried in great quantities and pounded into a sort of meal and cooked with dried meat and corn. Great quantities also are dried and laid away in store for the winter season, such as buffalo berries, service berries, strawberries, and wild plums."

"In addition to this we had the luxury of service berries without stint; and the buffalo bushes, which are peculiar to these northern regions, lined the banks of the river and the defiles in the bluffs, sometimes for miles together, forming almost impassible hedges, so loaded with the weight of their fruit that their boughs everywhere gracefully bending down or resting on the ground. This last shrub (*Shepherdia*), which may be said to be the most beautiful ornament that decks out the wild prairies, forms a striking contrast to the rest of the foliage, from the blue appearance of its leaves by which it can be distinguished for miles in distance. The fruit which it produces in such incredible profusion, hanging in clusters to every limb and to every twig, is about the size of ordinary currants and not unlike them in color and even in flavor; being exceeding acid, almost unpalatable until they are bitten by frost of autumn, when they are sweetened and their flavor delicious, having to the taste much the character of grapes, and I am almost to think would produce excellent wine." GEORGE CATLIN'S *Illustrations and max-*

Rakkio,—Bulbs of *Allium Bakeri*, boiled in Shogu.

Grated Wasabi,—Stem of *Eutrema Wasabi*.

Water-cress,—Midzu-tagarashi (not often).

Also sometimes pickled greens of various kinds, and occasionally chestnut-kernels boiled and mixed with a kind of sweet sauce.

Nut of the Ginkgo tree.

Several kinds of seaweeds are also very commonly served with the rice. Professor C. C. Georgeson in letter.

²³ 1 c. Preface in English Edition.

²⁴ "Carbonized apples have been found at Wangen, sometimes whole, sometimes cut in two, or, more rarely, into four pieces and evidently dried and put aside for winter use. . . . They are small and generally resemble those which still grow wild in the Swiss forests; at Robenhausen, however, specimens have occurred which are of larger size, and probably cultivated. No trace of the vine, the walnut, the cherry, or the damson has yet been met with, but stones of the wild plum and the *Prunus padus* have been found." LUBBOCK, *l. c.*, p. 217.

²⁵ *Animals and Plants under Domestication* (Am. Edn.), vol. ii, p. 205-209.

²⁶ *American Garden*, N. Y. 1890-91.

²⁷ *American Garden*, N. Y. 1891.

²⁸ *Useful Native Plants of Australia*, by J. H. MAIDEN, Sydney.

²⁹ *The Flowers of Japan and the Art of Floral Arrangement*. By JOSIAH CONDER, F.R.I.B.A., Architect to the Imperial Japanese Government. Yokohama, 1891. See also two other works by the same author: *Theory of Japanese Flower-arrangements*, and *Art of Landscape-gardening in Japan*. (1886.)

³⁰ Mr. SAMUEL DIXON's list is in vol. viii (for 1884-85) of the *Transactions and Proceedings and Report of the Royal Society of South Australia*. Adelaide, G. Robertson, 1886.

Bursaria spinosa, "a good stand-by," after the grasses dry up.

Pomaderris racemosa, "stands stocking well."

Pittosporum phyllaeroides, "sheep exceedingly partial to its foliage."

Casuarina quadrivalvis, "tenderness of fiber, wool would be represented by it in our finer wool districts."

Acacias, The Wattles. "Value as an astringent, very great," being curative of a malady often caused by eating frozen grass.

Acacia aneura (mulga). "Must be very nutritious to all animals eating it." This is the plant which is such a terror to the stockmen who have to ride through the "scrub."

Cassia, some of the species with good pods and leaves for sheep.

The foregoing are found in districts which are not wholly arid.

The following are, more properly, "dry" plants.

Sida petrophila, "as much liked by sheep as by marsupials."

Dodonaea viscosa, Native Hop-bush. "Likes warm, red, sandy ground."

Lycium australe, "Drought never seems to affect it."

Kochia aphylla: "All kinds of stock are often largely dependent on it during protracted droughts."

Rhagodia parabolica: "Produces a good deal of foliage."

Atriplex vesicaria: "Can be readily grown wherever the climate is not too wet."

I have transferred only those which Mr. Dixon thinks most worthy of trial. Compare also Dr. VASEY's valuable studies of the plants of our dry lands, especially Grasses and Forage plants (1878), Grasses of the arid districts of Kansas, Nebraska, and Colorado (1886), Grasses of the South (1887).

³¹ The weeds of German gardens and agricultural lands are mostly from Mediterranean regions, but the invasions in the uncultivated districts are chiefly from America, (such as *Oenothera*, *Mimulus*, *Rudbeckia*). *Handbuch der Pflanzengeographie*, von Dr. OSCAR DRUDE. (Stuttgart). 1890, p. 97.

³² The list of economic plants published by the Department in Washington is remarkably full, and is in every way creditable to those in charge.

ART. XXVIII.—*On the Vitality of some Annual Plants*; by
THEO. HOLM. (With Plate X.)

THE curious fact, that there may be individuals of annual species of which the life-time is not limited merely to one year, has been noticed by several botanists. Exceptions of that kind often seem to be nearly accidental, but in most cases they are, however, to be considered as due to certain external factors, as for instance climate and soil or cultivation. Indeed, the number is not very small of the species in which a fluctuation has been observed from being annual to perennial or at least biennial in a modified sense, as well as of those for which similar intergradation-forms have been recorded between the biennial on the one side and the annual and perennial ones on the other.

Irmisch* mentions for instance, that *Echinosperrnum Lap-pula*, which is usually biennial may occur as annual, having already developed the flowers in the first year; he observed that the same is true in the case of *Hyoscyamus niger*, of which even the annual form has been described as a proper species (*H. agrestis*) since it is very different in habit from the biennial type. The same author has also observed, that *Hypericum humifusum* and *Malva neglecta* may occur as both annual and perennial. *Sedum annuum*, which has been described as annual by Hartman, Areschoug and Blytt, was observed by Warming† to be biennial, and even that this seemed to be the normal for this plant.

Hildebrand‡ enumerates several species, which, although they occur under widely different conditions in both hemispheres.

succeeded in finding any special observations in the literature, and as he has had the opportunity of observing a few cases of that kind, they seem to likely to be of some interest, at least locally.

Hypericum nudicaule Walt. (*H. Sarothra* Michx.) is undoubtedly typically annual, but a few individuals were, however, collected late in the fall, which seemed to prove an exception. The base of one of these specimens is figured on plate X, fig. 1, and we see here two densely leaved branches proceeding from the lower part of the stem, and probably developed in the axils of the cotyledons. These shoots with numerous imbricate leaves might be supposed to be able to winter over and in the following year to give rise to flowers; the root-system in these individuals was unusually strong, showing not only a primary root, but also a few, and rather strong, lateral ones.

Another example is *Delphinium consolida* L., which as far as known to the author has not been recorded as otherwise than annual in Europe and here. The plant is rather rare in the vicinity of Washington, but occurs as escaped from cultivation on the banks of the Potomac. It was observed here to vary from annual to perennial, although both forms were growing together, and the perennial form showed a strong, persistent primary root and several flowering stems, besides a cluster of buds for the following year.

This kind of variation was also observed in *Cyperus flavescens* L., a plant, which is rather common in wet places around Washington, and I have sometimes met with individuals, which certainly seemed to be perennial. One of these is figured on plate X, fig. 6, and shows in contrast to the annual type a distinct rhizome with creeping stolons, from the nodes of which several strong roots proceed. It must be admitted that this specimen shows the general aspect of a perennial, stoloniferous *Cyperus*, able to give rise to new individuals by a vegetative propagation. Whether this species has been recorded as perennial also in other countries, I do not know, but Lange* mentions, however, the fact that he has collected the plant in France, where some specimens showed "tuberous stolons," and therefore questions its character as annual. Grenier and Godron† have, nevertheless, described the plant as merely annual. It might be mentioned here, that a similar variation also exists in *Carex cyperoides* L., which under normal conditions is truly annual; Lange states (l. c. p. 118) that the periodical disappearance of this plant in several parts of Europe has been explained by the fact, that it is able to veg-

* Joh. Lange: Haandbog i den danske Flora, 1886-88, p. 116.

† Grenier et Godron: Flore de France, vol. iii, 1855.

etate for several years without flowering, if the locality becomes inundated.*

It seems then, that this ability to vary among *Cyperaceæ* is easy to explain, although it may not be a necessary consequence in all cases; our specimens of *Cyperus* were observed as occurring together with numerous annual individuals and under the very same conditions.

The *Gramineæ* may undoubtedly include several other species, besides the cultivated ones, mentioned by Hildebrand (l. c.) in which this same variation may take place. *Tragus racemosus* Hall, represents at least the same case as that of *Cyperus*. It has always been considered as annual, lately by Dr. Vasey,† although some specimens in U. S. National herbarium prove, that it can also occur as perennial. These specimens have long stolons above-ground with abundant formation of leafy shoots at each node, from where long roots are also developed. A part of a stolon has been illustrated in plate X, fig. 2, where we see not only the crowded shoots, but also a secondary formation stolons (S). All these shoots were developed in the axils of leaves, belonging to the stolons, and they showed besides the proper leaves also the characteristic prophyllum (fig. 3). This small leaf had a rather unusual shape than otherwise observed; it was not only distinctly bicarinate, but showed at its apex two long teeth, corresponding to those of an ordinary palet (fig. 4). A transverse section (fig. 5) of the prophyllum shows the prominent keels and the very thin margins, besides the presence of not only two, but even six nerves, those of the keels being the strongest.

This manner of growth seems to be rather common in North American *Gramineæ*, especially those, which ramify, and there is no doubt, that under favorable conditions they

The plant illustrates then at once the two stages of a biennial growth: the leafy roset, which will winter over, and the flowering stems from a similar roset of the preceding year. The age of this specimen is at least three years, for there is a distinct stem-part (S') to be seen between the primary root and the now faded roset of leaves. This part of the stem is in contrast to the upper part which is horizontal and fixed to the ground by strong roots in addition to the persistent primary one. The plant has undoubtedly merely developed a leafy roset in its first year, when the seed germinated, probably flowered the second year and produced the stem-part S', flowered again in the third year, producing contemporarily a shoot that will flower next year, until finally an inflorescence will terminate the main axis and the entire individual die away after the ripening of the fruits.

The closely allied *A. lyrata* L. has been mentioned by Hildebrand (l. c.) as being annual or biennial. It occurs, however, also as perennial, and most commonly so in the Southern United States. I have collected several specimens in the vicinity of Washington, which were all decidedly perennial, and most of the individuals in the National Herbarium from other parts of North America showed the same fact. Some specimens from Japan were, however, annual, with flowers and leaves developed in the first year and at the same time. The perennial form shows nearly the same habit as above described for *A. dentata*, but commonly with a profuse development of lateral leafy shoots together with the inflorescences, so that the life is secured for a considerably longer time than in the preceding species.

That also *Arabis lævigata* Poir. may occur as perennial has been recorded by Hildebrand (l. c.), but without data; Gray has considered this species as truly biennial, in which form it occurs exclusively around Washington, where it is very abundant.

Washington, D. C., July 22d, 1891.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE X.

- FIG. 1.—*Hypericum nudicaule*. The base of the stem, showing two densely leaved shoots. Natural size.
- FIG. 2.—*Tragus racemosus*. Part of a stolon A-A, with secondary branches S and several crowded shoots. Natural size.
- FIG. 3.—Same. Part of a stolon, showing two leafy shoots in the axils of two leaves, belonging to the stolon. P, the prophyllum. Slightly enlarged.
- FIG. 4.—Same. The prophyllum; *a*, side, and *b*, back view.
- FIG. 5.—Same. Transverse section of the prophyllum.
- FIG. 6.—*Cyperus flavescens*. The base of a perennial specimen, showing the stolons. F, the base of the flowering stem. Natural size.
- FIG. 7.—*Arabis dentata*. The base of the plant, showing the primary root (R) and some secondary ones (*r*). L, L¹ and L² indicate the leafy rosetts of 1st, 2d and 3d year. F, the lower part of flowering stems. Natural size.

ART. XXIX.—A Method for the Separation of Antimony from Arsenic by the Simultaneous Action of Hydrochloric and Hydriodic Acids; by F. A. GOOCH and E. W. DANNER.

[Contributions from the Kent Chemical Laboratory of Yale College—IX.]

A METHOD for the separation of arsenic from antimony based upon the difference in volatility of the lower chlorides was introduced originally by Fischer.* This method of treatment consisted in the reduction of the chlorides by means of ferrous chloride and the volatilization of the arsenic by repeated distillations of the mixture with hydrochloric acid of twenty per cent strength added in successive portions. The process has been subsequently modified by Hufschmidt† by the substitution of gaseous hydrochloric acid, introduced in continuous current into the distilling mixture, for the aqueous acid, and later changed further and improved by Classen and Ludwig,‡ who employ ferrous sulphate, or ammonio-ferrous sulphate, in place of the less easily prepared ferrous chloride. In its latest form the method is exceedingly exact, but the conditions are such that the antimony in the residue must be determined gravimetrically. It has been our endeavor to so arrange the process that the determination of the antimony may be made by a rapid volumetric method, and this we have attempted to accomplish by substituting for the iron salt, which utterly precludes the direct volumetric estimation of the antimony, another reducer—hydriodic acid—which can interfere in no way with the subsequent determination of the

(added in the form of tartar emetic) was retained entirely in the residue under similar conditions of treatment. Moreover, it appeared that this action could be brought about in solutions measuring no more than 100 cm.³ at the beginning and no less than 50 cm.³ at the end of the distillation, so that a very considerable saving of time over that demanded by the process of distillation as left by Classen and Ludwig could be effected. Accordingly we proceeded to test the action of the hydriodic acid quantitatively, following the same general lines. The distillation-apparatus consisted of a flask of 250 cm.³ capacity, provided with a hollow glass stopper tightly fitted in a ground joint, the stopper itself being sealed upon a large glass tube bent suitably to connect the interior of the flask with an upright condenser, while through the hollow stopper, and sealed into it, passed a smaller glass tube reaching nearly to the bottom of the flask. The arrangement was such that a current of gas entering the smaller tube would pass nearly to the bottom of the flask and then out through the hollow stopper into the condenser without meeting joints of rubber or cork. Into this flask was weighed, for the experiments of Table I, about a half gram of carefully recrystallized tartar emetic, and a half gram of pure di-hydrogen potassium arseniate and a gram of potassium iodide were added in concentrated solution, the volume of liquid being made up to 100 cm.³ by the addition of strong hydrochloric acid. A brisk current of hydrochloric acid gas was passed into the solution through the tube sealed into the glass stopper of the flask until complete saturation was effected, and then the liquid was heated and distilled in the continuous current of hydrochloric acid gas until the volume of 30 cm.³ was reached. Iodine was evolved as soon as the liquid became warm and the greater part of it passed into the distillate with the first 10 cm.³ When the final concentration was reached the solution was in each case colorless, but on cooling there appeared in one of the two experiments of this set a pale yellow tint which vanished with the dilution involved in the transfer and washing from the flask previous to titration. The addition of starch to the cooled and diluted liquid developed no color. To the liquid were added 1 gm. of tartaric acid, to keep the antimony in solution during subsequent treatment, sodium hydrate nearly to neutrality, and hydrogen sodium carbonate in excess amounting to about 20 cm.³ of the saturated solution; and the antimonious oxide in solution was titrated by decinormal iodine standardized against tartar emetic. The details of these experiments are given in Table I.

In Table II are comprised the accounts of experiments similar in general to those of Table I, excepting that the final

volume after concentration was a little more, and the antimony was in every case oxidized in alkaline solution by standard iodine previous to the introduction of hydrochloric acid and distillation.

Table III includes the records of experiments similar in every respect to those of Table II excepting that as starch showed a slight color in the cooled liquid after distillation, the solution was treated with an excess of sulphurous acid which was subsequently oxidized exactly by standard iodine previous to neutralization and the final titration.

I.

| H ₂ KAsO ₄ taken. | KI taken. | Volume | | Color | | Sb ₂ O ₃ taken. | Sb ₂ O ₃ found. | Error. |
|--|--------------|------------------|------------------|-------------|--------------|--|--|---------|
| | | initial. | final. | on cooling. | with starch. | | | |
| gram. | gram. | cm. ³ | cm. ³ | | | gram. | gram. | gram. |
| 0.5 | 1.0 | 100 | 30 | pale yellow | none | 0.2282 | 0.2271 | 0.0011— |
| 0.5 | 1.0 | 100 | 30 | none | none | 0.2283 | 0.2266 | 0.0017— |

II.

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|----|-------------|------|--------|--------|---------|
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 120 | 50 | none | none | 0.2258 | 0.2235 | 0.0023— |
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | pale yellow | none | 0.2252 | 0.2235 | 0.0017— |
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | pale yellow | none | 0.2178 | 0.2163 | 0.0015— |
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | trace | none | 0.2231 | 0.2231 | 0.0000 |
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | trace | none | 0.2261 | 0.2235 | 0.0026— |

III.

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|----|-------------|-------|--------|--------|---------|
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | pale yellow | faint | 0.2268 | 0.2265 | 0.0003— |
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | pale yellow | faint | 0.2306 | 0.2300 | 0.0006— |
| 0.5 | 0.5 | 100 | 50 | pale yellow | faint | 0.2272 | 0.2264 | 0.0008— |

The same general phenomena were observed in all these experiments, and deficiencies in the amounts of antimony


excepting those of Table III, starch gave no test for free iodine in the diluted liquid, though it must not be overlooked that the presence of a considerable amount of hydrochloric acid tends to impair the delicacy of the test. If, on the other hand, the color is not due altogether to free iodine it is difficult to account for its development unless it is caused by the formation of antimonious iodide as the solution of strong hydrochloric containing also hydriodic acid cools. On the whole, we are inclined to attribute at least a part of the apparent deficiency to the presence, at the time of neutralization, of a small amount of iodine chloride, which, in accordance with what is known of its modes of formation, might be formed by the oxidizing effect of the antimonious and arsenic oxides upon the mixed acids. At all events, it is evident that if iodine chloride were present we should expect to note the phenomena which we do see; it would give, in small quantity, little or no color to the liquid, would not show the starch reaction for free iodine in the acid solution, and would be destroyed with the formation hydrochloric and hydriodic acids by the addition of sulphurous acid to the still acid liquid, leaving the antimony unchanged and determinable iodometrically in alkaline solution after the exact oxidation of the excess of sulphurous acid by iodine in acid solution; on the other hand, it would act in alkaline solution like the free halogens and tend to diminish the antimony indicated by titration. Whatever the real cause or causes of the deficiency may be, it appears in the results of Table III that the treatment with sulphurous acid affects the indications favorably. The mean error of three closely agreeing determinations is 0.0006 gm.—and this is plainly within the limits of allowable variation in iodometric work with decinormal solutions.

It appears, therefore, that hydriodic acid may be made to serve satisfactorily as a substitute for the ferrous chloride of Fischer's original method, or for the ferrous sulphate of the modification of Classen and Ludwig, the determination of the residual antimony being perfectly practicable. The method of proceeding which we advocate is briefly summarized in the following statement: To the solution of the oxides of arsenic and antimony, taken in amounts not exceeding 0.5 gm. of each, potassium iodide is to be added in a little more than the equivalent quantity, and enough strong hydrochloric acid to raise the entire volume of the solution to 100 cm.³ Hydrochloric acid gas is passed into the liquid to saturation as well as during the distillation to follow, and the distillation is carried on until the volume of the liquid decreases to 50 cm.³ or a little less. The liquid is cooled rapidly, treated first with an excess of sulphurous acid and then with iodine to the exact

oxidation of the former reagent; and, after the addition of 1 grm. of tartaric acid to every 0.2 grm. of antimonious oxide, the acid present is nearly neutralized with sodium hydrate, the neutralization being completed by hydrogen sodium carbonate added in excess to an amount corresponding to 10 cm.³ of the saturated solution for every 0.1 grm. of antimonious oxide present. Titration with decinormal iodine standardized against tartar emetic gives the antimony quickly and with a fair degree of accuracy. The whole process requires about an hour and a half for completion.

ART. XXX.—*Notes on Allotropic Silver*; by M. CAREY LEA.

Relations of the Yellow to the Blue Forms.—The gold-and copper-colored forms on the one hand, and the blue, bluish-green and steel-gray on the other hand stand in close relations to each other. In previous papers there has been described a crystalline state intermediate between these active forms and ordinary silver, which intermediate condition, while retaining the bright yellow color of the active form is nearly as indifferent to reagents as ordinary silver. Into this intermediate state both the yellow and blue forms are capable of passing, and apparently the intermediate states of both kinds of allotropic silver are identical: *the intermediate form of blue silver is yellow*. Thus when lumps of blue silver are heated in a test tube to about 180° C. they assume a gold color and luster. The same change takes place at the same temperature when films of blue silver are placed in a hot air bath.



color. (It is always a little difficult to characterize these substances by their colors since the surface color which they show when dry—either in mass or in films—is mostly complementary to their color when wet. As the surface color is much the more characteristic, I have adopted the course of naming them by that.)

The behavior of the red solution obtained by soda and dextrine with dilute sulphuric is very interesting and instructive. When 100 c.c. of solution are poured into 100 c.c. of water to which 3 c.c. of sulphuric acid have been previously added, a dark red precipitate falls, which, when dry, especially in films, is blue. The mixed liquid from which the precipitate is formed is acid. Increasing the proportion of acid to 4, 5 and 6 c.c. successively, the substance obtained has a green surface color becoming more yellowish green in proportion as the acid is increased in quantity. With $7\frac{1}{2}$ c.c. the substance no longer dries green but yellow. Increased proportions of acid produce substances drying with a coppery shade.

It will be seen that from a single solution, and using one substance only as a precipitant, we can obtain the whole range of different forms of allotropic silver, by simply varying the proportions of the precipitant.

That these forms of silver should subsist in the presence of sulphuric acid in excess is remarkable. For the most part the presence of this acid tends to quickly convert allotropic to ordinary silver. For example, bright yellow allotropic silver obtained with ferrous tartrate was washed on a filter with water containing $\frac{1}{500}$ its volume of sulphuric acid: in two or three hours the entire mass was converted into gray ordinary silver.

It is observable that the substances precipitated with the least acid, have a very splendid luster, and that this luster diminishes steadily as the proportion of acid is increased. Up to 6 c.c. to 100 the effect is hardly noticeable, after that it becomes more marked.

But we can also obtain the converse of this reaction. Just as the solution which naturally would yield the blue product, can be made to yield the yellow by the presence of excess of strong acid, so the solution which normally yields the yellow substance, may be made to produce blue (or rather green) silver by adding alkali. Thus a mixture of dilute solutions of ferrous sulphate and of Rochelle salt added to mixed solutions of silver nitrate and of Rochelle salt, results in the formation of gold-colored silver. But if we add a little sodium hydroxide, either to the iron solution or the silver mixture, we shall get a bluish green product, whose properties show that it belongs to the blue class and not to the yellow. Even if a

solution of the hydroxide is added immediately after the iron solution has been poured into the silver, the result is the same.

There is therefore a well marked tendency of acids to give rise to the formation of the yellow product and of alkalies to the blue. But this is a tendency only. Both substances can be produced from neutral solutions, and slight changes are sufficient to alter the product formed. Thus, ferrous tartrate, in dilute solution acting on silver tartrate gives rise to the formation of the gold-colored substance, but when citrates are substituted, the blue substance is obtained.

Production of Allotropic Silver by Inorganic Substances.—For reasons which will be mentioned presently, the reduction of silver must take place gradually to produce the allotropic form, and for a time it seemed an invariable condition that an organic substance of some sort should be present. This, however, proves not to be essential. In a paper presented to the American Academy and kindly read for me by Professor Remsen at the meeting in April last, I alluded briefly to having found a reaction depending upon inorganic agents only. It is as follows: Sodium hypophosphite added to silver nitrate does not effect reduction, but when hypophosphorous acid is set free by the addition of phosphoric acid, a red coloration appears, indicating the presence of allotropic silver. The coloration is transitory, no doubt because of the strong tendency of free mineral acids to convert allotropic to normal silver, but red and blue stains form on the sides of the vessel.

Phosphorous acid gives similar results, though perhaps less well marked.

Action of Light on Blue Silver.—This action differs with different varieties: it was more especially examined with the

being accepted. The action is very easily shown by exposing a film of the substance to light, covering part of the surface with an opaque screen. After twenty or thirty minutes of exposure to strong summer sunshine, the film may be plunged into a one per cent solution of potassium ferridcyanide, when the part exposed colors much sooner and more strongly than that which was covered. The effect is shown still better by placing the film in a frame, covering part with paper rendered absolutely opaque by coating it with thick tin foil, part with translucent paper (thick white writing paper or very thin brown paper) and leaving part wholly exposed. After four or five hours action of strong summer sunshine, the film is to be treated with weak ferridcyanide. The part wholly exposed having passed into the gold-colored crystalline condition (if the exposure has been sufficient) is wholly unacted upon, the part covered by the translucent paper is rapidly attacked, that wholly protected is attacked slowly. So that the portion moderately acted on by light has very markedly increased in sensitiveness thereby.

It follows that upon this form of silver *light has a reversing action*, first exalting its sensitiveness, then completely destroying it.

It is impossible to overlook the analogy which exists between this action of light, and that which light exerts on silver bromide.

The latter substance though incomparably more sensitive to light, is subject to the same reversing action, first gaining in sensitiveness to reducing agents and then, by continued exposure, becoming less sensitive than originally, a change commonly known as solarization.

Causes determining whether in the reduction of Silver, the Allotropic or the Normal form shall be produced.—I have examined the phenomena connected with the reduction of silver under a great variety of conditions. These for the most part do not deserve particular mention but seem to lead up to this generalization: that the reduction of silver may be direct or indirect, direct when it passes from the condition of the normal salt or oxide to that of the metal, indirect when the change is first to sub-oxide or to a corresponding sub-salt. So far as my observation has gone when the reduction is *direct* the reduced silver always appears in its ordinary form. But when the reduction is *indirect* the silver presents itself in one of its allotropic states.

The following reactions support this view.

Three of the principal modes of formation of allotropic silver are: (1) reduction of silver citrate or tartrate by ferrous citrate or tartrate; (2) acting on silver nitrate or oxide by

dextrine and fixed alkaline hydroxide; (3) acting on silver nitrate or carbonate by tannin and fixed alkaline carbonate. Now, if in either of these three cases we interrupt the action before it is complete by adding an excess of dilute hydrochloric acid we shall obtain a dark chestnut-brown or sometimes purple-brown substance which on examination proves to be a mixture of silver subchloride and photochloride. When, after complete removal of the excess of hydrochloric acid by thorough washing or better by boiling with distilled water, the substance is treated with cold dilute nitric acid that portion of the sub-chloride which is not combined with the normal chloride is broken up and there remains photochloride of a very rich and intense rose-color.*

The production of silver sub-chloride in all these cases would seem to indicate that the reduction when the acid was added was incomplete, and that in case (1) a sub-salt, and in cases (2) and (3) a sub-oxide was first formed as an intermediate step before complete reduction. Either of these substances would of course give rise to the formation of subchloride when treated with hydrochloric acid. It is important to observe that this result is to be obtained only by interrupting the reaction before it is complete. When, for example, allotropic silver in solution is produced by the action of sodic hydroxide and dextrine and after complete reduction, hydrochloric acid is added, the liquid becomes filled with gray normal silver, which presently collects to a cake. When this cake is well washed and boiled with water, and then treated with dilute nitric acid, solution takes place: a trace of photochloride is left behind. It has been mentioned elsewhere that hydrochloric acid, though without action on ordinary silver, is capable of forming a variable quantity of protochloride when placed in contact

facts that would support this view, especially the very rich and varied coloration of the subsalts corresponding to the almost infinite variety of color of allotropic silver, while normal salts of silver when formed with colorless acids are mostly colorless. On the other hand, the greater activity of allotropic silver and its less specific gravity would seem to indicate a simpler molecular constitution than that of normal silver.

ART. XXXI.—*Structural Geology of Steep Rock Lake, Ontario*; by HENRY LLOYD SMYTH. With Plate XI.

GEOGRAPHY.

STEEP ROCK LAKE is situated in the Province of Ontario, Canada, northwest of Lake Superior and south of the Canadian Pacific Railway. It lies about twenty-five miles east of the center of the rough quadrilateral formed by the Canadian Pacific Railway on the northeast, the Lake of the Woods on the northwest, the United States boundary on the southwest, and the shore of Lake Superior from Pigeon River to Port Arthur, on the southeast. As given on the map of the Province, scale 1 inch = 30 miles, published by the Crown Lands Department, Toronto, 1884, the geographical position of the extreme southern point of the lake, where it receives the waters of the Aticokan River from the east, is about lat. $48^{\circ} 52'$ N. and long. $91^{\circ} 30'$ W. from Greenwich; or, it is about halfway upon the map between Lac des Milles Lacs and Rainy Lake.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Steep Rock Lake is one of the many that, collectively, connected by longer or shorter links of river make up the River Seine from Island Falls as far as, and doubtless below, the Aticokan River. In shape the lake resembles, as shown on the map, an irregular and slightly distorted letter M, of which the western or left arm, (looking north), runs north and south, and the eastern or right arm northwest and southeast. This peculiar form is closely related to the character and to the structure of the rocks in which the lake lies as will be seen in what follows. The Seine River, after a beautiful fall, two hundred feet across, and forty to fifty feet high, over granite, some three hundred yards northeast of the lake, flows into it at a point about a mile southeast of the northwest extremity of the eastern arm. It leaves the lake at the extreme southern end of the western arm. Between the points of entrance and

exit there is no current observable by the eye and the difference in level must be exceedingly small.

As regards dimensions:—from the southern extremity of the eastern arm to the mouth of the river near the Falls is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles; from the Falls to the Elbow, 3 miles; from the Elbow to the Upper Narrows, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles; and from the Upper Narrows south to the Aticokan River $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The entire lake including the portion of Lake Margaret shown on the map could be inscribed within a rectangle 6 miles from east to west, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles from north to south, or within an area of 33 square miles. As the name implies the lake has bold rocky shores, which, in places rise 150 feet from the water in nearly perpendicular cliffs. The total length of shore line is approximately 28 miles not counting the smaller bays and indentations. Not less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of this length shows rock in place either at the water's edge or within a few hundred feet of it, and of this perhaps $\frac{1}{4}$ may be studied without leaving the boat.

The contour of the water line shows a very beautiful dependence upon structural conditions. The eastern arm follows the general strike of the rocks from the bay north of Lake Margaret portage northwest to Falls Bay. On the northeastern shore of this arm the lower limestone makes several bold headlands that rise abruptly from 60 to 100 feet above the water. In the bays between these headlands the basement granites intersected by a large number of greenstone dikes form the shore, and rise more gently into the broken hummocky hills that generally characterize the granitic areas of the region. A few hundred feet back from the southwestern shore the great trap intrusions or flows of Horizon IV make



From the southern point of Pine Beach the shore again follows the strike of the rocks, as it sweeps round the south pitching axis of the middle anticlinal; and in the stretch from Boulder Point to the Upper Narrows, in which the strike locally varies between N. 2° W. and N. 18° E. the water line minutely corresponds to the minor deflections. This shore shows continuous rock exposure, and the cliffs reach a height in places of 40 or 50 feet above the water, having perpendicular faces along cleavage surfaces.

The highest land about the lake is north and west of Conglomerate Bay, and in the peninsula between it and Northwest Bay. Except for a fringe of the Conglomerate and lower limestone (Formations I and II) along Northwest Bay, and of the upper horizons of the series east of the fault line that crosses the southeast extremity, the peninsula is composed entirely of the basement gneisses and granites, which rise from the water west of Conglomerate Bay in a steep cliff (along a surface of faulting) 100 feet or more high. The hills in the northern part of the peninsula may reach a height of over 300 feet, but this as well as other figures concerning elevations is an eye-estimate only, and not a measurement.

GEOLOGY.

The rocks exposed around the shores of Steep Rock Lake and of Lake Margaret, are divisible into three principal groups. The lower division consists of granites and gneisses, which typically are medium grained, hornblendic, and granitoid, with faint foliation. Locally they present considerable variations in composition and very great variations in structure.

Resting upon these basement rocks is a series of rocks showing a thickness of about 5000 feet in exposure along the shores of the lake. Upper members that are not seen upon the lake probably exist in the trough of the eastern synclinal, southeast of Jack Pine Pt. The series is divisible into nine formation which as far as known are perfectly persistent along the strike throughout the area studied. It offers many important points of difference, lithologically, in structure, and in its relations to the underlying granites, from any series of rocks previously described in western Ontario. Leaving the question of correlation to be discussed after the series has been described it will be called for purposes of description in this paper, the Steep Rock Series.


At the southeastern extremity of the eastern arm, at the north end of the portage into Lake Margaret, lying across the edges of the Steep Rock Series, begins a succession of later granite porphyries, and massive hornblende rocks, striking

N. 55 to 65 E., which pass upward, in going south across the strike, into the schists of the Aticokan River. These will be termed the Aticokan Series.

Basement Complex.--The granites were very hastily examined in the narrow fringe in which they are exposed along certain shores of the lake. They were studied mainly with reference to their distribution and structural relations to the overlying Steep Rock series; no attempt can now be made to separate geographically the various kinds of rocks which are included in the basement series, or to indicate their relations to one another.

The predominant rock in the basement series is a hornblende muscovite granite of medium grain, composed of clear to bluish quartz, feldspar, a green hornblendic mineral, and muscovite. The color on the weathered surface is white, slightly tinged with green, and on the fresh fracture a darker well marked green. This is the usual type. Occasionally a red granite carrying biotite is seen, which owes its color to flesh-colored feldspar. True gneisses are rare, but they are occasionally found as at locality 50 on the ridge north of the mouth of the creek emptying into the bay north of Lake Margaret portage, and in the peninsula east of Northwest Bay, at locality 125. At both localities the rock is a coarse hornblende gneiss, exhibiting a parallel arrangement of the constituent minerals, and pegmatization. At locality 125 the coarse gneiss carries angular inclusions, which are finer grained and darker than the mass of the rock, but similar in composition.

Distinguishable from these gneisses in which the origin of the gneissic foliation is unknown is a great body of chloritic



All these granitic rocks are traversed by an immense number of dikes of greenstone, and more rarely of quartz porphyry, all of which for structural reasons are conveniently considered with the basement complex.

These belong to three eras of irruption. (1) Those which supplied pebbles to the conglomerate at the base of the Steep Rock series. (2) Those which are seen to traverse both the granitic and Steep Rock series, and to have participated in the folding. (3) A single massive dike of porphyrite (?), which cuts through the most schistose phase of the granite at the turn of the sharp fold at the head of N.W. Bay, and is clearly subsequent to the latest period of folding of the region. The dikes of class 2 are best seen along the N.E. shore of East Bay. They are rudely parallel, the walls are straight and nearly vertical, trending from N. 45° to N. 65° E., and in a general way cutting the granites and the lower horizons of the S. R. series in a direction normal to the contact and strike. They vary in width from one to two feet up to 70 feet, and clearly were the chimneys through which passed up the material for the great mass of interbedded traps on the south side of the same arm.

The contact phenomena with the country rock are uniformly as follows: When the dike is less than 6 or 8 feet in width it is fine grained, without crystalline structure, and throughout is highly schistose in the general regional direction. The wider dikes have massive and crystalline interiors, but are fine grained and schistose in a direction parallel to the induced regional cleavage, for a distance of $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 feet from the wall. The country rock also is schistose next to the wall of the dike, the belt affected being narrower where the adjacent rock is granite than where it is limestone.

With regard to distribution, it may be said in a general way that all shore lines north of the water, from Lake Margaret to Northwest Bay, are, with few exceptions, made up of the rocks of the basement complex. The exceptions are the headlands in East Bay and at the Elbow which are of limestone, the great mass of limestone at the head of Falls Bay, and the limestone between Camp Bay and Conglomerate Bay, and the Conglomerate along the latter.

Steep Rock Series.—The Steep Rock series consist of 9 well marked and persistent horizons exposed about the lake. It is very probable that other higher members exist in the land area southeast of the shore from Jack Pine Pt. to Pine Beach. The 9 formations are given in the table below which reads upward in ascending order:

- IX. Dark Gray clay slate.
- VIII. Agglomerate.
- VII. Greenstones and greenstone schists.
- VI. Upper conglomerate.
- V. Upper calcareous green schist.
- IV. Interbedded crystalline traps.
- III. Ferruginous formation.
- II. Lower limestone.
- I. Conglomerate

In the foregoing description of the basement complex the northern limit of the Steep Rock series has roughly been indicated. Formations I and II occur in isolated patches north of the water on shores that are otherwise occupied only by the granites. Along the whole course of the lake they dip, at very steep angles, ranging from 60° to 80° away from the basement rocks, upon which they hang as a time-worn fringe, having no extension inland. The shore line lies sometimes in the granites and sometimes in the Steep Rock series, but in a general way follows closely in direction the boundary between them. It is only along these northern shores that formations I and II are seen at all, and as they are usually found together, separated from the higher members by intervening water, it will be convenient to keep them apart from the rest for purposes of description. The basal member of the Steep Rock series, which is generally found between the granites and the lower limestone, is a bed having a maximum thickness of nearly 100 feet, presenting the various phases of a conglomerate, coarse and fine, a quartzite and a quartz schist with feldspar. The formation occurs as a coarse conglomerate at the eastern end of Coburn Lake Bay. The lowest bed exposed at the

as a rule, of beds of quartz pebbles, none larger than buckshot, with little cement, alternating with layers of massive quartzite.

In crossing from the base of the limestone to the granite it becomes at first slightly and then more and more feldspathic as the latter is approached. Near the junction both rocks are very similar in composition, so that it is quite impossible to draw the line between them from considerations of composition. There is an apparent transition from one rock into the other. This transition zone, which is from 20 to 30 feet in width, is uniformly highly schistose, in the regional direction N. 43° E., which, in the eastern arm, where the strikes are from N. 50° to 60° W., crosses the courses of the contact and the bedding nearly at right angles. The schistose structure is traceable through the transition zone into the undoubted granite in which it dies out gradually, being represented a few feet away by little discontinuous wavy cracks, along which chlorite is usually developed, and by a faint foliation.

From these facts it appears certain that the granitic complex supplied by erosion the materials for Formation I, and that the contact is therefore one of unconformability. There is no unconformability of structure; for the only normal structure possessed by the basement rocks, that of schistosity, was demonstrably imposed upon them at a time long subsequent to the accumulation of the various materials which now compose the Steep Rock series. The absence of a sharp line of demarkation between the complex and Formation I, which may seem to be a difficulty in the way of accepting the existence of an unconformability, is believed to be capable of a satisfactory explanation. In considering the orotechnic history of the region the transition zone will be shown to represent, not a transition in time, but a mechanical transition in composition, dating from a time subsequent to the accumulation of the rocks of the Steep Rock series.

Formation II, the lower limestone, lies above Formation I, with which it is seen in direct contact at a number of localities. The rock is very uniform in character wherever exposed. It is a dark to light bluish gray limestone, not at all highly crystalline, often banded with layers of lighter color, along planes of original bedding. The light bands vary in width from a fine line up to 6 or 8 inches. Bedding planes are also often marked by thin cherty seams. Basal portions are frequently massive and siliceous, and in some localities are highly charged with pyrites the decomposition of which causes the rock to weather brown. The upper part of the formation is a breccia, composed of fragments of limestone, showing original structure, and of trap, imbedded in a matrix that seems to be mostly made up of a consolidated calcareous flour. It is widely

distributed, and is nearly if not quite coextensive with the limestone. The total thickness of the lower limestone cannot be determined precisely, as it is nowhere seen in contact with the overlying Formation III, but quite surely is not less than 500 nor more than 700 feet. A much greater thickness is exposed in the north side of Conglomerate Bay, in part resulting from duplication by faulting. On the eastern arm, where the rocks are comparatively undisturbed the limits indicated are those given above.

Formation III is found only on the south shore of the eastern arm which it fringes from the Point N.W. of Lake Margaret Portage to Falls Bay, in much the same way that the limestone fringes the north shore. As a whole the formation consists of an extremely soft, fissile dull green, very pyritiferous rock, which carries in some localities many pebbles of limestone and a few of trap. In the lower parts of the formation the limestone fragments, which are identical with the rock of Formation II, are rather numerous, and some are large, one, angular in shape, being over two feet in diameter. Others are apparently rounded and waterworn. In other localities pebbles are not found at all. For the most part the only structure observable is the regional cleavage which is very perfectly developed. At two localities a fine banding parallel to the strike of the rock was observed. At loc. 27, south of trap bluff this banding is very prettily shown. The rock carries a few rounded pebbles of limestone. The banded structure is thrown into little compressed S W. pitching folds the tangent plane to which is parallel to the plane of the dip in the limestone across the bay. Apart from the limestone inclusions and this banding the rock shows no trace of sedi-

greenish-gray rock, made up of plagioclase and hornblende, and is probably a diorite. Locally it includes layers of green schist which are to be regarded as mechanical derivatives, analogous to the chloritic gneissic phases of the basement granite. The formation is best seen south of the eastern arm, where it forms a long ridge running from Lake Margaret portage N.W. to Falls Bay, and in the two natural sections made by the shore line at both the northern and southern ends. Small patches are exposed at a number of localities about the lake. It is uncertain whether this is an intrusive sheet or a flow.

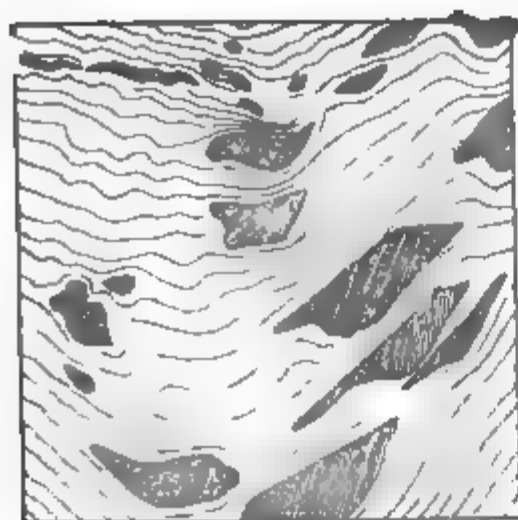
Formation V is a very calcareous green schist containing thin seams of limestone. The included layers are quite pure finely crystalline limestone. Thin sections of the less calcareous portion show that the rock consists of 50 to 60 per cent of calcite, and for the rest, of argillaceous material and secondary quartz. Originally it was probably in the main a very calcareous shale, with thin beds of limestone. The thickness is about 600 feet.

Immediately above the limestone comes Formation VI, a conglomerate, having a maximum thickness of about 100 feet. It varies in habit, from a hydromica schist, carrying many grains of quartz, the clastic character of which is evident in thin section, to a rather coarse conglomerate, the pebbles in which seem to be entirely of quartz and granite. The locality in which it may be best seen is on Falls Bay, on the shore east of Jack Pine Point.

Formation VII. The type rock of this horizon is a light greenish gray, massive, close textured rock, which weathers a light brown. In thin section it appears to be of eruptive origin, but owing to the complete alteration of the bisilicate it is uncertain whether it was originally a diabase or a diorite. Departing from this as a type, on the one hand are found members which show crystalline structure macroscopically, and on the other banded green schists which to the eye have every appearance of being altered sediments. Under the microscope however they show no trace of sedimentary origin. This banding is of two kinds. (1), a fine banding due to an alternation of thin seams differing slightly from one another in color and in texture. (2), a coarser, due to the interbedding of layers of the massive varieties with the schistose. These layers are of all thicknesses, from a few inches up to several feet. The structure, of both varieties, appears to be antecedent to the last folding of the series, since it is often greatly contorted, and frequently intersected by the regional cleavage, and in general is parallel to the true strike. A graphitic schist, twenty feet or more in thickness, is also included. There is an

evident stratigraphical succession in the various members, the banded schists predominating towards the top. The peculiar gray green color and close texture are characteristic of the rocks of this horizon. The thickness is about 1400 feet.

Formation VIII. The agglomerate is best seen at Jack Pine Point and at locality 79 to the south of it. At locality 79, it consists of pebble-like inclusions, greatly resembling the type rock of Formation VI, imbedded in a light gray-green fissile



Scale of inches



Fig. 1.—Agglomerate, Loc. The shaded inclusions in nature are lighter in color than the enclosing green schist. The waving lines indicate plications in the matrix.

matrix which is bright on the cleavage surfaces. The inclusions vary in size from a fraction of an inch up to 5 or 6 in. long diameter. They are elongated, and have rounded outlines, though tapering to rather sharp points. They are all of the same material, which is the same as the matrix apparently, differing from it only in lacking the schistose structure. They are hardly distinguishable from the matrix in color, on the fresh fracture, but on the weathered surface the inclusions stand out, and weather a lighter brown. Under the microscope the inclusions are seen to consist of an eruptive rock

entirely similar to the massive form of VII. On Jack Pine

posed, the shore line again crosses the intermediate formations in descending order, the strikes bending round gradually to N. 20° E. A line drawn a little west of south through the eastern point of the limestone of the Elbow marks the intersection of the axial plane of the middle anticlinal with a horizontal plane. West of this line the limestone of the Elbow, Formation VI, and the various members of Formation VII, which alone are exposed on the southern and western shore, strike again to the northwest, gradually bending round along the latter to the east of north. The limestone at Conglomerate Bay abuts against a cliff of the basement granite, the line of separation marking the position of a fault. About 6000 feet S.W. along the line of this fault, which is well marked by a breccia in the peninsula N.W. of the upper narrows, Formations I and II are found again on the opposite side, striking N.W., and farther north on the large island in N.W. Bay, bending round again to the southwest. On the west shore of the lake west of N.W. Bay green slates, probably belonging to Formation VII, are found west of Formation II, and again on Birch Point indicating another fault which trends to the west of north. These two faults so complicate the structure of the western part of the lake, that the relations of the rocks, which are all recognizable as belonging to one or another of the IX formations of the series, could not be worked out in the time available.

There are two points in the general structure of the rocks of the lake which are especially noteworthy and significant. They are:

1st. The high pitch of the axes of the great folds. At the turn of the middle anticlinal at the Elbow, dips, which are well marked in the limestone, range from vertical to 75° to the south, (Section II.) At the turn of the western synclinal in Northwest Bay the dip is about 60° in the same direction. We have here, then, folds with very high south-pitching axes, the pitch in the case of the anticlinal being nearly 90° and in the case of the synclinal at a lower angle. In the case of the eastern synclinal the pitch is also high, though apparently considerably less than 90°, as indicated by the greater thickness of the series measured along the axis than across it. The Steep Rock series, therefore dips away from the granites, at the turns of folds, at angles which do not differ materially from those observed in the long straight stretches; as, for example, that in East Bay.

2nd. The regional cleavage. Throughout the whole area is observed a regional cleavage, which has a tolerably uniform direction between the limits N. 38° and N. 48° E., and traverses all the rocks of the region, both the eruptive and sedimentary members of the Steep Rock Series, and the rocks of basement complex. It has largely obliterated the original

lamination of the sediments and banded schists of the Steep Rock Series, and is now the dominant structure.

In inferring the orotechnic history of the region the origin of the N.E. cleavage must be ascribed to a force acting perpendicular to it, or in a N.W. and S.E. direction; and since this cleavage runs through, and in many cases masks all previous structure, the force which produced it must have been the last force which has left its marks upon the rocks of the lake. To this force also must be ascribed the action which left the Steep Rock series in its present folded attitude.

What was the position of the rocks just before this cleavage-producing force acted upon them? It could not have been horizontal, for in the long stretch in East Bay, where the strike runs nearly straight for four miles, and in the limestone exposures N.W. of the Elbow, the plane of the dip nearly coincides with the direction of this force, and the cleavage planes intersect it nearly at right angles. A N.W. and S.E. force acting parallel to the present strike in the plane of the dip, could not have tilted these portions of the Steep Rock Series into their present nearly vertical position. It seems necessary to suppose, therefore, that before the cleavage-producing force acted, that part of the Steep Rock Series that we know, existed as a N.W. and S.E. striking monocline, having a high dip to the S.W. as the result of previous folding by a N.E. and S.W. force.



standing leaves of the series would oppose their maximum rigidity, but by horizontal buckling about nearly vertical axes, to which the opposed rigidity would be a minimum. Figures 2 and 3 illustrate this point. 2nd, consequent upon the regional movements attending the folding were produced minute fissures, and a rearrangement of particles along planes perpendicular to its direction; or, in other words, the regional cleavage.

These two periods of orotechnic action explain also the schistose dikes and the transition zones between Formation I, and the granitic complex. The dike at locality 41 will serve as an example of the class. It is from 60 to 70 feet in width and cuts the granitic complex, the southeast wall running N. 48° E. For a distance of three feet from the wall the dike is very schistose and fine grained. The interior is massive and crystalline. Under the microscope the interior is seen to be a quartz diorite, consisting of quartz, plagioclase, hornblende,—in places altered to chlorite and epidote, magnetite and apatite. The feldspars are nearly all saussurized. A slide from the schistose portion shows it to be a hydromica schist, with a great deal of normal chlorite. The quartzes are strained and broken, and the magnetite is granulated and drawn out into fissured "augen." Some epidote is arranged along planes of foliation. The rock shows shearing and crushing in an eminent degree.

Previous to the first orotechnic period we may suppose that the Steep Rock series lay in a horizontal position upon the basement complex. The parallel dikes, of which 41 is an example, which supplied the materials for the interbedded eruptives of the series, constituted a system of thin vertical beds running through and binding together the granitic complex, and the sediments and interbedded eruptives of the upper series. The effect of the first force was to arch the series about horizontal axes parallel to the present strikes in East Bay, and perpendicular to the course of the chimney series of dikes. It acted parallel to the direction of these dikes and therefore opposed to their greatest rigidity. As the upper series bent under the action of the force, there must have been a difference in the rate of yielding of the bedded sediments and thin horizontal eruptives, on the one hand, and the vertical dikes and massive granitic complex on the other. This difference in rate of yielding must have produced grinding: 1st, of the basal sediments on the granitic complex; 2nd, between the vertical dikes and the rocks through which they passed, whether sediments, interleaved eruptives, or of the complex.

The grinding would result in shearing and comminution of both rocks in zones adjacent and parallel to the contacts. The

transition zone at the junction of the basement complex and Formation I, represents the depth to which the granites, previously weakened by disintegration, were affected by the grinding. In this zone there was also doubtless a certain intermingling of particles produced by the action of gravity.

The later orotechnic force has imposed schistose structure in these zones of comminution just as in the sedimentary members of the upper series.

Behavior of the complex.—How have the crystalline rocks of the basement complex yielded to the tremendous stresses which produced the buckled folds in the upper series? This most interesting question must be left incompletely answered. A few points, however, are clear. Great relief was afforded by the fault across the northern end of the lake. The dip of the fault plane, unfortunately, was not observed, but it is conceived that the movement was essentially horizontal, and that the 6000 feet of observed throw is nearly the full measure of its amount. In the zone adjacent to the Steep Rock Series, in which alone the granites were studied, the presence of numerous folded dikes, in the localities in which the whole series has been specially folded, seems to show that the granites

yielded by bending and not by faulting. One of these is shown in figure 4. It is one of many seen in the stretch of shore north of Wiegand's Point. The



the thickness of the series measured in section has been largely but indeterminately increased. In the stretch from the Elbow north to the head of Falls Bay, west of the axial plane, the series is much thinner, probably as the result of three causes: (1) A general stretching in this direction. (2) A possible faulting along the axis. This has not been observed, however. (3) A probable thinning out of the trap horizon in going west.

For these reasons a measurement across the series there would probably be at least as much less than the true thickness as the East Bay section is greater. A mean between them, or 4500 feet, may be taken as an approximation to the true thickness.

General Considerations.—The study of the Steep Rock series shows some results both positive and negative which have a general interest in connection with the geology of the region N.W. of Lake Superior.

1st. The contact of Formation I with the basement complex is one of erosion.

2d. The complex at the time of the deposition of the Steep Rock series was made up of consolidated crystalline rocks, and there is no evidence whatever that it has since undergone fusion, or recurred to the condition of a magma.

3d. The rocks of the Steep Rock series have been subjected at two periods, more or less distant, from one another, to the action of great orotechnic forces, which acted—the first in a N.E. and S.W. direction, and the second in a N.W. and S.E.

4th. The latter force has imposed upon all the rocks of the region a N.E. structure, which has largely, but not entirely, obliterated preëxisting lamination in the sediments and schists of the Steep Rock series.

5th. The two orotechnic actions have produced great developments of autoclastic* schists, both in the granites and in the rocks of the Steep Rock series; the present structure in which was induced and determined in direction by the last force.

The consideration of the Aticokan series, with a more general discussion of the mutual relations of the three series of rocks, and an attempt at correlation, must be deferred to another paper.

The author wishes to express his great obligations to Prof. Raphael Pumpelly for many valuable suggestions. Mr. C. Livy Whittle, of Cambridge, Mass., has kindly examined a number of thin sections from the Steep Rock series, and the results of his study are incorporated in the above description of formations.

Port Arthur, Ontario, June, 1891.

* That is, schists formed in place from massive rocks by crushing and squeezing, without intervening processes of disintegration or erosion, removal and deposition.

ART. XXXII.—*On the so-called Amber of Cedar Lake, North Saskatchewan, Canada:* by B. J. HARRINGTON, McGill College, Montreal.

THE occurrence of mineral resins in some of the coals and lignites of the Northwest and British Columbia has been known for many years, and the results of a partial examination of specimens from three localities were published by the writer in the report of the Geological Survey for 1876-77, p. 471. The conclusion then arrived at was that none of the specimens could be referred to amber or succinite, though in some respects closely resembling that substance. Attention was also called to the statement of Goeppert that he knew of no instance of true amber being found in the brown coals of northern Germany, the substance occurring in those beds being "retinite."

During the summer of 1890, Mr. J. B. Tyrrell, M.A., of the Geological Survey of Canada, visited a locality on the west shore of Cedar Lake, near the mouth of the North Saskatchewan, where a mineral resin resembling amber in appearance has been found in large quantity. With regard to it Mr. Tyrrell says: "It occurs mixed with sand and many fragments of partly decayed wood, on a low beach behind a gradually shelving shore and along the face of a deep, wet, spruce swamp. The pieces were, for the most part, smaller than a pea, but could be readily seen glittering among the sand and vegetable debris. Some pieces were found as large as a robin's egg, and Mr. King [of the Hudson's Bay Company] informed me that he had collected pieces very much larger. It has been

The writer is indebted to Mr. Tyrrell for specimens of this so-called amber from Cedar Lake, and the results of their examination, as far as completed, will now be given. The substance was in pieces, for the most part very irregular in shape, some being more or less angular, others approximately spherical, and others flattened, discoid or lenticular. Some of the pieces were smaller than a pea, but they ranged from this up to the size of an ordinary bean (about 2 centimeters long). In color they varied from pale yellow to dark brown, and many, when examined by transmitted light, appeared clouded or banded from the presence of black carbonaceous matter. Superficially they were generally dull, owing, perhaps, to chemical change, but on fresh surfaces the luster was resinous. The fracture was conchoidal. Though electric on friction, they appeared to be less strongly so than ordinary amber.

Light-colored fragments, free from black carbonaceous matter, were selected for examination, and any superficial crust carefully removed by scraping. The hardness of these selected pieces was fully $2\frac{1}{2}$. The specific gravity, as obtained with a quantity of material in the specific gravity bottle, was 1.055 (at $20^{\circ}\text{C}.$), and a single fragment gave by suspension with a hair 1.0543 ($20^{\circ}\text{C}.$). The material for analysis was finely powdered and dried over sulphuric acid *in vacuo*. The combustions were made with lead chromate in the usual way, and the ash determined with a separate portion in a platinum crucible. The following are the results obtained:

| | I. | II. | Mean. |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Carbon | 80.01 | 79.91 | 79.96 |
| Hydrogen | 10.37 | 10.55 | 10.46 |
| Oxygen | 9.53 | 9.45 | 9.49 |
| Ash | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.09 |
| | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> |
| | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |

Excluding the ash the results become:

| | I. | II. | Mean. |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Carbon | 80.08 | 79.98 | 80.03 |
| Hydrogen | 10.38 | 10.56 | 10.47 |
| Oxygen | 9.54 | 9.46 | 9.50 |
| | <hr/> | <hr/> | <hr/> |
| | 100.00 | 100.00 | 100.00 |

The ash was brick-red in color and found to contain silica, alumina, iron, lime, and magnesia.

The only solvents whose action upon the resin has been tried as yet are absolute alcohol and absolute ether, and the effect of these was ascertained as follows: One gram of the finely pow-

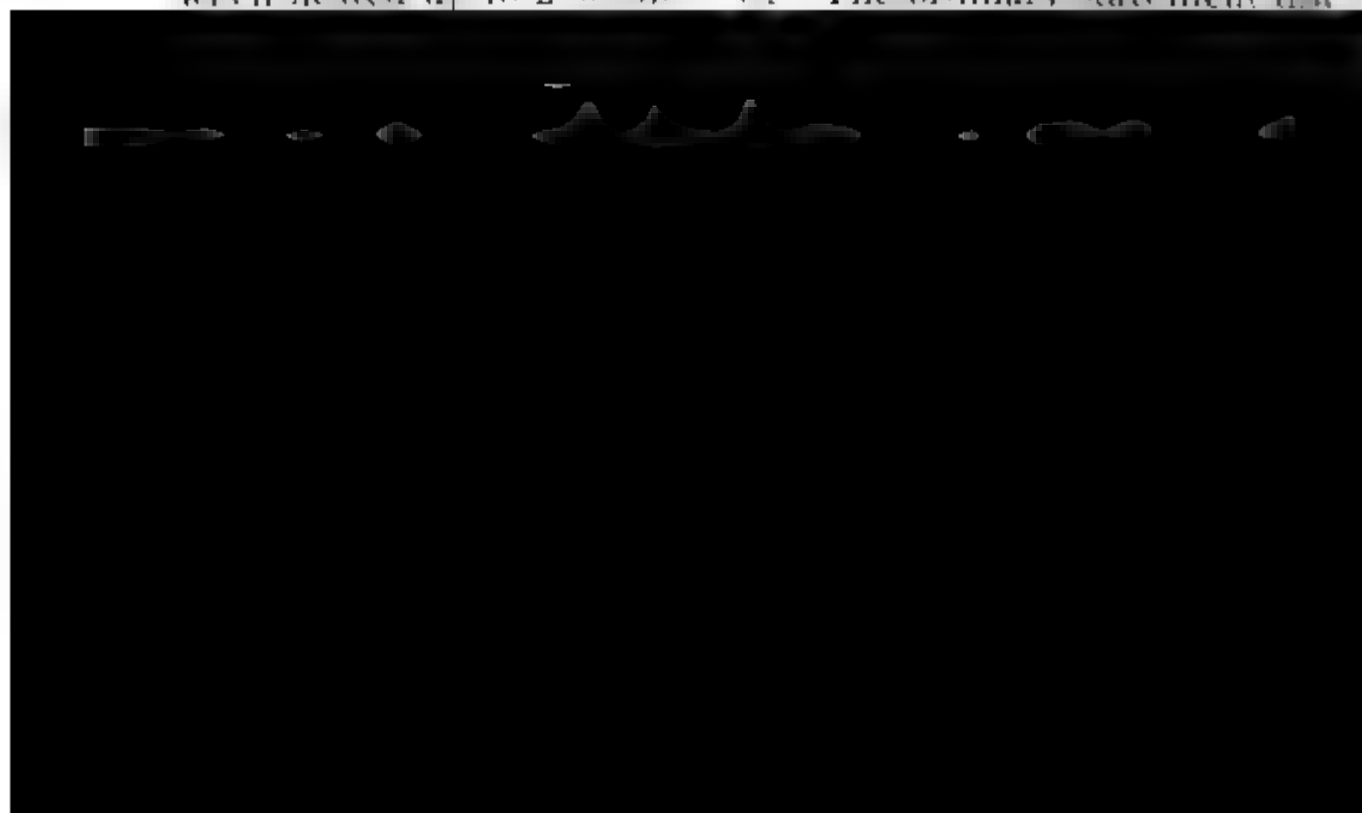
dered resin was mixed with ten grams of pure quartz sand in a cylinder of filter paper and extracted in Soxhlet's apparatus, in the case of the alcohol for three and a half hours (24 siphonings) and in the case of the ether for two hours (24 siphonings). In each case the sand and filter paper were previously extracted by the special solvent for several hours. The extract from the resin was evaporated in a weighed platinum dish and the residue dried at 100° C. The results obtained were as follows:

| | | |
|------------------------------------|-------|-----------|
| Dissolved by absolute alcohol..... | 21.01 | per cent. |
| “ “ “ ether | 24.84 | “ |

The effect of more prolonged action of the solvents has not as yet been ascertained. The alcoholic extract after drying was brownish in color, while that obtained with ether was only faintly yellow.

When small fragments of the resin were heated in closed tubes it was found that they began to soften at about 150° C., the point of softening being roughly ascertained by pressure with a platinum rod. At 180–190° C. the fragments were sufficiently yielding to be pressed into one mass by the platinum rod. Heated up to 300° C. the resin did not melt into a flowing liquid, but became soft and elastic, and had darkened a good deal from partial decomposition.

Fragments of genuine amber behaved in a similar manner, but began to soften at about 140° C. At 180° they could be readily pressed into one mass, and in the one experiment tried they seemed to darken more readily than the Cedar Lake resin when heated up to 280°–300° C. The ordinary statement that



Cedar Lake resin contains more carbon than the amber analysed by Schrötter and less oxygen, and in this respect is nearer to Walchowite and to some of the recent copals of India. The relations of some of these bodies will be shown by the following tables:

| | Carbon. | Hydrogen. | Oxygen. | Ratio of C, H, and O atoms. | Ratio of C, H, and O atoms, taking C = 40. |
|---------------------|---------|-----------|---------|--------------------------------|--|
| Amber | 78.82 | 10.23 | 10.95 | 9.60:14.95:1 | 40:62.29:4.16 |
| Krantzite | 79.25 | 10.41 | 10.34 | 10.22:16.11:1 | 40:63.05:3.91 |
| Cedar Lake Resin | 80.03 | 10.47 | 9.50 | 11.23:17.63:1 | 40:62.79:3.56 |
| Amber (Bombay) .. | 79.70 | 10.40 | 9.90 | 10.75:16.83:1 | 40:62.62:3.72 |
| Amber (Calcutta) .. | 80.34 | 10.32 | 9.34? | 11.46:17.67:1 | 40:61.67:3.49 |

Phillips' Mineralogy (1852), p. 630. Anal. by Schrötter. Dana's Mineralogy (1869), p. 741. Anal. by Landolt. IV. S. Dictionary of Chemistry (ed. i.), vol. ii, p. 19. Anal. by Filhol. V. Watts's Dictionary of Chemistry (ed. i), vol. ii, Anal. by Filhol.*

Though resembling amber in some of its characters, the Cedar Lake resin may here be classed provisionally as "resin" on account of its differing from amber in its deportment with solvents,† in not yielding crystals of succinic acid on distillation, and in having a somewhat different ultimate composition. The name retinite as used by some mineralogists is a convenient general term to include such substances as Walchowite, Krantzite, Jaulingite, Rosthornite and the Cedar Lake resin, which last, by way of distinguishing it from others, may be called Chemawinite (from Chemahawin or Chin, the Indian name of a Hudson Bay post, not far from where the resin occurs).

Though the origin of this substance is not certainly known, there can be little doubt that it has been derived from one of the Tertiary or Cretaceous lignites occurring on the Saskatchewan. Some of these are known to contain resins, one of which, analysed by the writer, was not essentially very different from the Cedar Lake material. It behaved similarly on heating, had a hardness of over 2, a specific gravity of 1.066, and dissolved in absolute alcohol to the extent of 29.30 per cent.

Some of the larger pieces of the Cedar Lake resin might, if properly treated, be employed for ornamental purposes (beads, etc.), and possibly the material might be utilized by the varnish-makers.

This question will be discussed when the examination of the Cedar Lake resin is completed.

In the last analysis, as given by Watts, there is an error. The total is given as 99.80, whereas it is really only 99.80. It is here assumed that the error is on the oxygen—the constituent determined by difference. A similar error occurs in Dana's analysis of amber, as given by Dana.

Statements in works on mineralogy with regard to fossil resins are often contradictory and sometimes conflicting. Thus, in speaking of the action of such solvents as alcohol or ether, we are told nothing as to the strength of the solvent, the duration of its action, etc., and the results given are, therefore, often of little value.

ART. XXXIII. — *Geological Horizons as determined by Vertebrate Fossils* ;* by O. C. MARSH. With Plate XII.

IN 1877, the author endeavored to bring together some results of his researches in the Rocky mountain region and in other parts of the country, relating to the succession of vertebrate life.† This led to a comparison of the relative value of the three different groups of fossils; plants, invertebrates, and vertebrates, in marking geological time. In examining the subject with some care, the author found that, for this purpose, plants are not satisfactory witnesses; that invertebrate animals are much better; but that vertebrates afford the most reliable evidence of climatic and other geological changes. The subdivisions of the latter group, and, in fact, all forms of animal life, are of value in this respect, mainly according to the perfection of their organization, or zoological rank. Fishes, for example, are but slightly affected by changes that would destroy Reptiles or Birds, and the higher Mammals succumb under influences that the lower forms pass through in safety. The special applications of this general law, and its value in geology, readily suggest themselves.

In accordance with this principle, the author next attempted to define the principal geological horizons in the West which he had personally investigated, and then taking in each the largest and most dominant vertebrate form which characterized it, used the name for the horizon. In the same way, some of the principal horizons of the East were named, and the whole brought together in a section to illustrate vertebrate life in

discoveries have been made, especially in the West, and much information bearing on the subject has been obtained from various quarters. In 1884, the author revised and extended the first section for his monograph on the *Dinocerata*, and it seems fitting on the present occasion to bring together once more some of the later evidence, and place on record the more important horizons now known to the author by personal exploration, or by other investigations which he has verified.

The accompanying section, Plate XII, is designed to represent in outline, in their geological order, the successive horizons at present known with certainty from characteristic vertebrate fossils. The correlation of these horizons with those determined on other evidence is important, and considerable progress in this direction has already been made, but the results cannot be presented here.

In comparing the present section with the one first published by the author, it will be noticed that no vertebrates are yet known in the Archæan or Cambrian, but a single fortunate discovery in Colorado has recently carried back the first known appearance of Fishes, from the lower Devonian to the lower Silurian, or more specifically, from the Schoharie Grit to the Trenton.

The next point of importance is in the Triassic, in the horizon of the Connecticut river sandstone where so many foot-prints have been found, and attributed to Birds. Recent discoveries in these beds have shown that at least three distinct forms of carnivorous Dinosaurian reptiles, all of moderate size, lived at that period, and doubtless did their share in leaving foot-prints behind them. In two of the skeletons secured, the bones of the hind feet are still in position, and in life could have made some of the foot-prints previously discovered.

Near the base of the Jurassic, a new horizon may now be defined as the Hallopus beds, as here alone remains of the remarkable reptile named by the author *Hallopus victor* have been found. Another diminutive Dinosaur, *Nanosaurus*, occurs in the same strata. This horizon is believed to be lower than the Baptonodon beds, although the two have not been found together. The Hallopus beds now known are in Colorado, below the Atlantosaurus beds, but quite distinct from them.

The Baptonodon beds have been found at many localities, in Dakota, Wyoming, and northern Utah, everywhere beneath the Atlantosaurus beds, and having below them, at various localities, a series of red beds, which may, perhaps, contain the Hallopus horizon, but are generally regarded as Triassic.

Beside the two species of *Baptonodon* described by the author, the next vertebrate in importance, in the same horizon,

is a small Plesiosaur, which may be called *Parasaurus*. One specimen only has been found in northern

The *Atlantosaurus* beds of the upper Jurassic are known to be one of the best marked horizons. They have been traced for more than four hundred miles along the eastern flank of the Rocky mountains, everywhere contain great numbers of fossil, especially gigantic Dinosaurs and other reptiles, and diminutive mammals of primitive types. They have been found on the western slope, with the *Atlantosaurus* beds beneath them.

The most remarkable of the new horizons discovered are the *Ceratops* beds in the Laramie of the Cretaceous. This horizon is as strong as the *Atlantosaurus* beds, and has now been traced eight hundred miles along the eastern base of the mountains. Toward the north, it is underlain by Cretaceous strata containing Fox Hill, and south, various older formations are found beneath it. The overlying strata, when present, are of Tertiary age. The Fort Union Eocene beds on the west, the *Brontotherium* beds of the Miocene in Wyoming, and south in Colorado the *Plihippus* beds, can all be seen immediately above. The very best of the *Ceratops* beds is remarkably rich and contains many horned Dinosaurs named by the author, and especially abundant, and determine the horizon. Dinosaurs are also numerous; and a few Birds of Mesozoic age have also been discovered.

In the very recent geological formations, the

mm. thick and 50 mm. high, contained in a thin glass vessel rounded by three glass beakers to protect it from outside heat, was found possible to maintain it at atmospheric pressure at its boiling point -181.4° for half an hour or more; and thus to submit it to observation for that time. The four absorption bands above mentioned were observed, and in addition a fifth band corresponding to the Fraunhofer line A, more intense than the band of wave length 535 but less so than the others. No absorption band corresponding to the line B was seen. In 1883 liquid oxygen was described as colorless; but with larger quantities, the author has noticed that in a layer of greater thickness than 15 mm., it has a distinct blue color by transmitted light. Since special care was taken in the purification of the gas, and since ozone was proved to be absent, the author believes this color to be characteristic of liquid oxygen. Moreover, he suggests that the blue color of the sky may be due to the oxygen in the atmosphere.—*Ann. Phys. Chem.*, II, xlii, 663; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 8, July, 1891.

G. F. B.

2. *On the Production of Ozone in Rapid Combustion.*—The statement of ILOSVAY that ozone is not produced in rapid combustion having been questioned, he has reexamined the matter and concludes that the tests by which the presence of the ozone was established by Loew and Cundall were not satisfactory. He finds that neither in the products of combustion nor in the air taken from around a flame is any substance present which (1) has the odor of ozone, (2) renders thallous oxide paper brown, (3) permanently decolorizes a solution of sulphophenyl-azo- α -naphthylamine so that naphthylamine no longer restores the color. By carefully depriving the gas used of sulphur compounds, he obtained in only a single experiment a reaction with thallous oxide paper; and this after about seven hours. Taking special precautions to keep the temperature of the flame low, however, and employing a special collecting apparatus, he obtained the thallous oxide reaction in about 4 to 5 minutes and the other reaction in 10 to 15 minutes. Examined in this way the author finds the flame of methane to give less, the flames of hydrogen and carbon monoxide more ozone than that of illuminating gas. Moreover it appears that the relative amounts of nitrous acid and ozone formed by a flame depend upon its temperature and upon its surface; the ozone formation being favored by a low temperature. Oxygen did not give as good results as air. Even if the oxygen is partially converted into ozone by blowing a current of oxygen gas or of air on a flame, this fact the author thinks does not contradict his statement that ozone is not formed during rapid combustion. These results agree with those of Dewar and those of Elster and Geitel. The former chemist ozonized oxygen by passing it over white hot platinum. Since therefore the conditions essential to the production of ozone are not present in ordinary combination, this cannot be the source of the ozone of the atmosphere.—*Bull. Soc. Chim.*, III, iv, 707; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 8, July, 1891.

G. F. B.

3. *On Sulphuryl Peroxide.*—By the action of the silent electric discharge upon a mixture of either sulphuric oxide or sulphurous oxide and oxygen, Berthelot obtained several years ago a crystallized compound to which he gave the name persulphuric acid and the formula S_2O_8 . The same substance was also obtained by Berthelot by the electrolysis of a 40 per cent sulphuric acid. Shortly afterward TRAUBE made a preliminary examination of this compound and concluded that its formula was SO_3 and not S_2O_8 ; and further that it was not an acid oxide as Berthelot supposed, but a neutral substance, sulphuryl peroxide. The present paper deals with the analytical results of his investigation. Although he has not succeeded in isolating the peroxide, he has obtained it free from the 40 per cent sulphuric acid in which it was dissolved. This was done by diluting the solution with 2 to 4 times its volume of water and adding to it freshly prepared barium phosphate. The sulphuric acid is thrown down as barium sulphate and the filtrate contains the peroxide dissolved in phosphoric acid with some barium phosphate. It does not seem capable of existing in solution in pure water. As the peroxide easily evolves oxygen and is reduced to sulphuric oxide, the composition of the dissolved compound was ascertained by taking a known volume of the solution, determining first the active oxygen therein by a known solution of ferrous sulphate, titering back with permanganate, and then the sulphuric acid as barium sulphate. In two experiments, the active oxygen was found to be 9.62 and 35.96 milligrams, the SO_3 present being 49.5 and 178.5; giving the ratio 1:5.1 and 1:5 in the two cases. Hence 16 parts active oxygen are combined with 80 parts of SO_3 ; i. e., $SO_3 + O = SO_4$; or perhaps $(SO_3) + O_2 = S_2O_8$. In order to determine its neutral character, the electrolyzed sulphuric acid after dilution with one to two parts of water and cooling to -10° , was saturated with dilute alkali—a process which did not affect the SO_3 . On boiling the

in this solution and also decreased the quantity of the active oxygen as determined by the iodine method. The author regards this compound either as sulphuric oxide in which a single atom of oxygen is replaced by a double one, $\text{SO}_2(\text{O}_2)$ or as hydrogen peroxide in which the hydrogen is replaced by SO_2 , corresponding to Brodie's class of neutral peroxides. Berthelot's S_2O_7 he regards as $\text{SO}_3 + \text{SO}_3$. Since in not too dilute sulphuric acid, it dissolves without evolution of oxygen, the equation $\text{S}_2\text{O}_7 + \text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{SO}_3$ shows the identity of the product thus obtained with that produced by electrolysis.—*Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, 1764, June, 1891.

G. F. B.

4. *A Dictionary of Applied Chemistry*; by T. E. THORPE assisted by eminent contributors. Vol. II, 714 pp., 8vo. London, 1891, (Longmans, Green & Co.)—The first volume of the Dictionary of Applied Chemistry—the successor, on the technical side, to Watts's Dictionary of Chemistry—was noticed in volume xxxix of this Journal, (p. 519). The second volume has now appeared and carries the work on from Eau to Nux, and hence the completion of the whole may be looked for at an early date. Some of the more important subjects discussed at length, and in many cases with liberal illustrations, are the following: Explosives, by W. H. Deering; fermentation, by P. F. Frankland; fuel, by B. H. Brough; coal gas, by Lewis Wright; gold, by E. J. Ball; india rubber, by C. A. Burghardt; iron by Thomas Turner; lead by P. P. Bedson; matches, by E. G. Clayton; naphthalene, by W. P. Wynne. The same thorough but concise treatment before noted characterizes this volume and makes the work as a whole indispensable to all interested in any of the many departments of technical chemistry.

5. *Measurement of time of Rotation*.—The ordinary methods of determining the time of very rapid rotation depend in general upon the contact of a stylus on the prong of a tuning fork with a rotating wheel or cylinder, or on the use of the electric spark with a pendulum to indicate the time of rotation. K. PRYTZ departs from both of these methods and employs a falling body upon or against which the rapidly rotating body spirts a fine jet of coloring matter. In this way retardation of contacts is prevented, and the time is referred directly to the time of a falling body. The author gives in detail the method of holding the small glass tube containing the coloring matter, and the method of obtaining the records. Examples of determination of time by this method are given and the author claims that the time of a complete revolution of his apparatus could be determined to 0.00002 of a second.—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, No. vii, 1891, pp. 638–651.

J. T.

6. *Method of determining Specific Heat by means of the Electrical Current*.—The method of determining specific heats by the use of Joule's law has not proved useful, except in non-conducting liquids. Professor PFAUNDLER has obviated the difficulty of conduction through the liquid by employing glass

spirals filled with mercury. These spirals were placed in a Wheatstone's bridge in order to control the ratio of the resistance during the flowing of the current and to keep it constant.—

Wiener Berichte, April 9, 1891.

J. T.

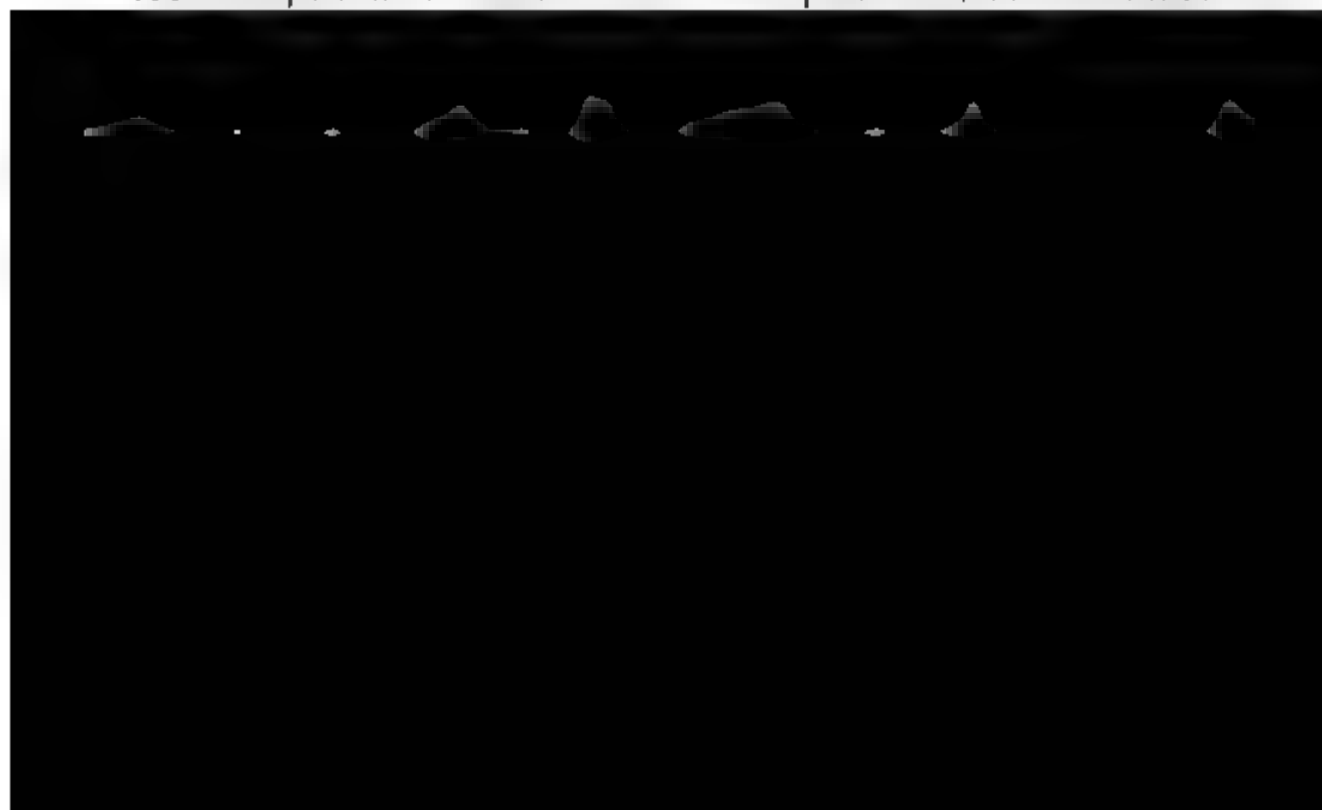
7. *Optical relation of Organic Dyes*.—E. VOGEL discusses the sensitizing power of the various compounds of eosine and gives charts of the sensitizing power. He recommends for orthochromatic photography that ordinary dry plates containing a weak amount of iodide of silver should be bathed in the following: 25^{ccm} solution of the coloring matter, erythrosine, in water, (1:1000); 0.5^{ccm} solution nitrate of silver (1:20 water); 2^{ccm} ammonia, spec. grav. 0.94; 75^{ccm} distilled water. The author finds that the eosine dyes which are the most strongly fluorescent are the poorest sensitizers. Among the other conclusions of the writer we find the following: The sensitizing power of the eosine dyes depends: 1. On the sensitiveness to light of the dye. 2. On the proportion of light rays that is absorbed in other than chemical work. The more energy of the latter that is consumed in other than chemical work the smaller the chemical action.—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, No. vii, 1891, pp. 449–472.

J. T.

8. *Maxim's Flying Machine*.—It is stated that Mr. Maxim is now constructing a flying machine at Crayford, which is nearly ready for launching. "It will be propelled by a light screw making 2500 revolutions per minute. The motive power is said to be a petroleum condensing engine weighing eighteen hundred pounds, and capable of raising a forty thousand pound load. The real suspending power will lie in an enormous kite measuring 110 feet long and 40 feet wide."—*Nature*, July 30, 1891.

J. T.

9. *Small Electrometers*.—At a meeting of the Physical Society held in London, June 26, Professor BOYS described small portable electrometers of his design. In one of these the needle was cross-shaped and made of zinc and platinum, and reference was



ences promises to give an insight into the relation between the character of the light and the distribution of light in its spectral lines.—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, pp. 790–807, no. 8, 1891.

J. T.

11. *Thought transference*.—Professor LODGE, President of the section of Mathematics and Physics at the late meeting of the British Association, used the following language: “May there not also be an immaterial (perhaps an etherial) medium of communication? Is it possible that an idea can be transferred from one person to another by a process such as we have not yet grown accustomed to, and know practically nothing about? In this case I have evidence. I assert that I have seen it done and am perfectly convinced of the fact.”—*Nature*, Aug. 20, 1891, p. 386.

J. T.

II. GEOLOGY.

1. *Fifth Triennial Meeting of the International Congress of Geologists*.—The International Congress commenced its sessions at Washington, on Wednesday, the 26th of August. The meeting was called to order by Prof. T. McKenney Hughes, of Cambridge, England. After the election of officers, in which Dr. J. S. Newberry was chosen President, the chair, in the absence of Dr. Newberry, was taken by Prof. Joseph LeConte, one of the Vice-Presidents. The principal subjects discussed during the sessions are the following: The Ice-period in America and northern Europe and the classification of pleistocene formations, which was opened by President T. C. Chamberlin and occupied Thursday; the Correlation of European and American geological formations, opened by Prof. G. K. Gilbert, occupying Friday; the Graphic system used in geological work, opened by Major Powell, on the forenoon of Monday. The afternoon of that day was given up to discussions relating to the geology of the regions to be visited by the Western excursion.

On the subject of Correlation, the value of the effects of physical events or conditions and of relations in flora, in fauna, in Invertebrate species and Vertebrate species was variously discussed. The weight of opinion appeared to favor the view that Vertebrate species, when present, afforded the best evidence as to chronological relations. Prof. Zittel gave the highest place to Vertebrates. An abstract of Prof. Marsh's remarks is contained in the paper on page 336.

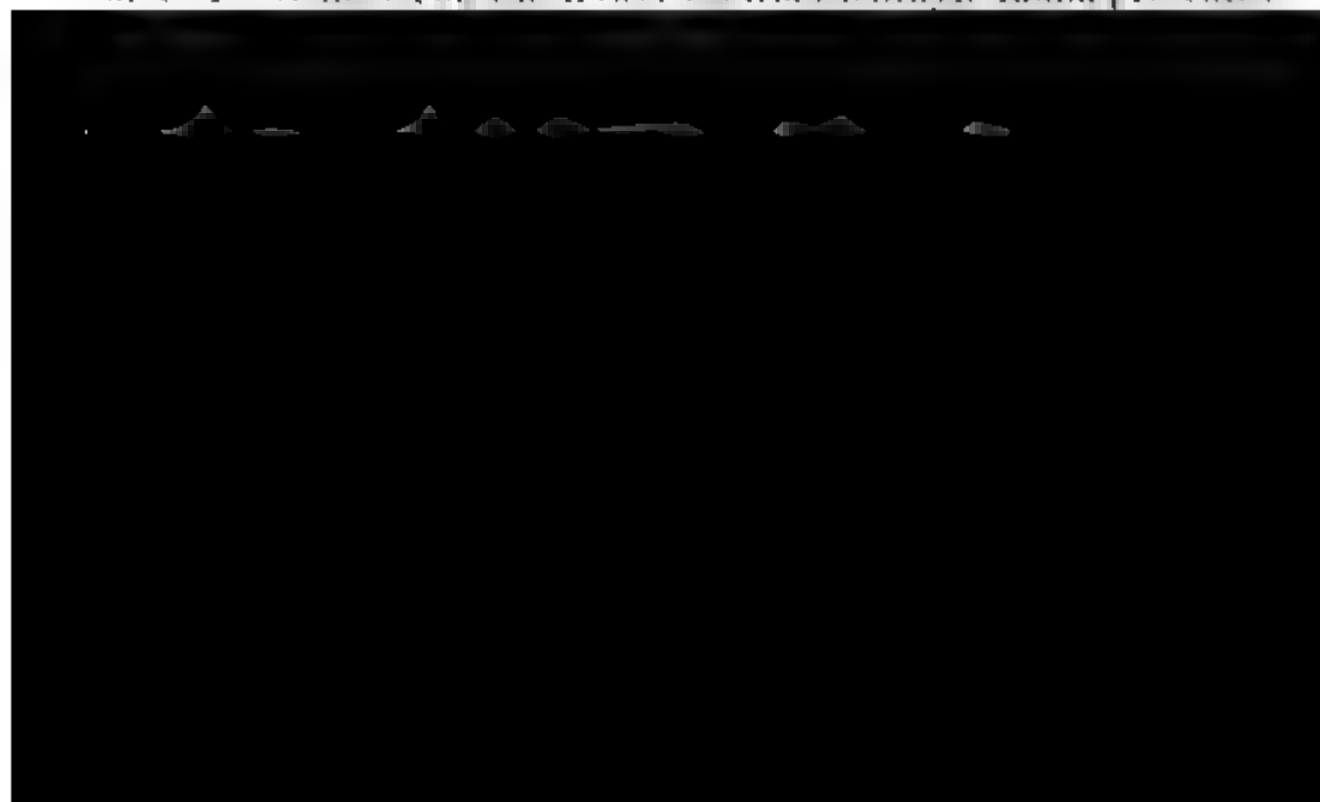
The next meeting of the Congress, or that of 1894, will be held in Switzerland, probably at Berne; and, on special invitation received from the Geological Survey of Russia, the following, in 1897, will probably be held in St. Petersburg.

The party for the excursion to the Yellowstone Park, Colorado, etc., included about eighty members of the Congress, of which more than half were those from abroad. The following ladies were of the number: Miss Mary Forster of London, Mrs. Mary

Caroline Hughes of Cambridge, England, Madame Marie Pavlow of Moscow, Madame Henriette Sihleano of Bucharest, Roumania, Madame Maria G. Stefanescu of Bucharest, Mrs. S. F. Emmons, Miss Mary G. Markoe and Miss C. A. Smith, of Washington, and Mrs. H. S. Williams of Ithaca. Through the Park the party has the special guidance of Messrs. Hague and Iddings. The excursion will occupy 25 days; or for those who go also to the Colorado Cañon, an additional ten days. The latter trip is under the direction of Major Powell. A geological guide-book of 150 pages, prepared by Mr. S. F. Emmons, was distributed to members of the party. The party left Washington on the second of September.

2. *The Geological Society of America.*—The Geological Society held its Summer meeting in Washington on the 24th and 25th of August. The President of the Society, Prof. Alexander Winchell, having died since the preceding meeting, the chair was taken by Prof. G. K. Gilbert, Vice-President. Resolutions in honor of the late President prepared by a committee were offered by the chairman, Prof. Orton. An excellent memorial of Dr. Winchell was read by his brother Prof. N. H. Winchell.

Many foreign geologists were present at the meeting of the society and several presented papers having an American importance; among these were Prof. Alexis Pavlow, of the University of Moscow, on the marine beds terminating the Jurassic and Cretaceous and on the history of their fauna; Dr. Gustav Steinmann on a geological map of South America; Dr. Friedrich Schmidt, on the Eurypteris beds of Oesel as compared with those of the Waterlime of North America; Baron Geråld de Geer, of Stockholm, on the Quaternary changes of level in Scandinavia; Prof. A. N. Krassnof, of Russia, on the black earth of the steppes of southern Russia and its relations to the soil of the American prairies. Of the other valuable papers, that of C. D. Walcott, on the Lower Silurian ichthyic fauna presented



organization and explaining the objects of, and the results to be derived from, such an official organization. The following are among the important objects in view :

The determination of the proper objects of public geological work ; the improvement of methods ; the unification of methods ; the establishment of the proper relative spheres and functions of national and state surveys ; coöperation in works of common interest and the prevention of duplication of work ; the inauguration of surveys by states not having such at present to coöperate with the other state surveys and with the national survey.

A committee of six was elected to consider the matter of organization, with the power to frame a constitution and by-laws, to be reported to the association at a time and place to be selected by the committee. This committee consists of Maj. J. W. Powell, chairman, and Prof. E. A. Smith, Prof. J. A. Holmes, Dr. J. C. Branner, Mr. Arthur Winslow, and Prof. N. H. Winchell. At the meeting of the Committee, Saturday evening, Aug. 29, the secretary, Mr. Arthur Winslow, was instructed to draft a constitution and by-laws to be submitted to the committee at a meeting to be called in connection with the annual meeting of the Geological Society in December next. The object of the association is an important one and much good should come from it.

4. *The Fauna of the Lower Cambrian or Olenellus Zone*; by C. D. WALCOTT. pp. 511 to 774, with plates xliv to xcvi of the Tenth Annual Report of the Director of the U. S. Geol. Survey. —Mr. Walcott, who has added greatly by his labors to the knowledge of Cambrian life and geography, gives a review in this memoir of his former work on the fauna of the Lower Cambrian, with additions from his more recent results. After a chapter on the history of Cambrian discovery, the stratigraphy of the Cambrian is reviewed and its distribution over the American continent and elsewhere, as at present known, is described. The latter subject is illustrated as regards America by a map on which sections are drawn for each locality having their relative heights ; and the former by various actual sections, some of which show contacts with older rocks. Mr. Walcott observes that the fauna lived, not on the outer coasts of America but in interior straits or channels between emerged ranges of older rocks ; that it occupied the eastern and western portions of the continent, but that “as far as known, the Lower Cambrian is absent from the interior of the continent,” indicating thereby, he says, very uniform condition over the central portions. He remarks that the Upper Cambrian sea is shown to have been transcontinental by the presence of identical species of fossils in Northern New York, Lake Champlain valley, St. Lawrence valley, Tennessee, Alabama, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Texas, the Black Hills of Dakota, Nevada and Montana. In the *Olenellus* period, also, there was a similar assemblage of forms on the opposite sides of the Continent.

The chapter on the Geographical distribution goes into details as to the rocks and species of each locality over the Continent,

with comparisons of the special fauna. It is followed by another on the relations of the Lower Cambrian fauna to those of the overlying Cambrian.

This latest review of the species makes the tribes represented in the American Lower Cambrian include: Sponges of four genera; Hydrozoa of the group of Graptolites, and perhaps Medusæ; Actinozoa or true Coral polyps; Echinoderms, of the group of Cystids; Annelids; Brachiopods of 10 genera and 29 species; Lamellibranchs, probably of two species; Gasteropods, of the genera *Stenotheca*, *Platyceras* and *Pleurotomaria*; Pteropods, of 4 genera and 15 species; Crustaceans of Ostracoid type, of the genera *Leperditia*, *Aristozoe* and *Isoxys*; and of the Phyllopod type, in his *Protocaris*; and Trilobites of 16 genera and 53 species.

Notes of new facts and views relating to the genera and species follow, his former papers being referred to for full descriptions. Fifty plates of figures of the various species close the memoir. Mr. Walcott observes that nothing is learned from the rocks with regard to the genesis of these Lower Cambrian types.

5. *Relation of secular Rock-disintegration to certain transitional crystalline schists*; by R. PUMPELLE (Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., ii, 209).—This paper is a very valuable contribution to geological science. Some of its facts and conclusions are here cited. A dike of basic rocks intersecting the pre-Cambrian Clarksburg mountain gneiss, near Williamstown, Mass., does not pass up into the overlying Cambrian quartzite. The dike bears evidence of having been decayed before covered by the quartzite; and thus leads to the conclusion that the region was dry land before the deposition of the Cambrian. In Hoosic Mountain, which has a core of pre-Cambrian granitoid gneiss, this gneiss has even a formation, in an anticlinal, consisting of

this decay. The apparent conformity in foliation is due to the shearing action consequent on the slipping movement.

About Iron Mountain, Missouri, Mr. Pumpelly observed, in 1873, evidence of ancient disintegration, and pointed out a conglomerate at the base of the mountain as of Silurian age, and a result of pre-Silurian disintegration. Borings recently made by Prof. W. B. Potter have resulted in the discovery of extensive areas of residuary ore-fragments lying on the pre-Silurian surface.

Mr. Pumpelly has under investigation the Archæan rocks of New England and their relations to the associated rocks, and his paper shows that he has already reached results of great importance.

6. *The Greylock Synclinorium*; T. NELSON DALE (American Geologist, July, 1891).—This paper is an abstract of a Report to R. Pumpelly, U. S. Geological Survey. The chief conclusion confirms the view of Emmons and later observers that the Greylock mountain mass is synclinal in general structure. The author makes it a combination of synclinals and anticlinals, but chiefly of two large synclinals. His paper is illustrated by one of the several sections which will appear in the full report.

7. *Report on the Arkansas Geological Survey for 1888*, Vol. IV. JOHN C. BRANNER, State Geologist. 262 pp. 8vo, with many plates. Little Rock, Ark., 1891.—This concluding volume of the Report for 1888, is occupied with an account of the geology of Washington Co., by F. W. Simonds, Assistant Geologist, and a list of the plants of Arkansas by J. C. Branner and F. P. Coville. The rocks include four strata of limestone alternating with sandstones and shales of the Lower Carboniferous (Subcarboniferous), with a thin stratum of shale at the base, probably Devonian, and the Millstone Grit, of the "Barren Coal Measures," at the top. The lowest limestone abounds in chert. The greatest thickness given for the Millstone grit is 500 feet, and for the formations below less than 300 feet.

8. *Tungsten minerals in Canada*; by W. F. FERRIER, Geol. Survey of Canada. Communicated by permission of the Director, ALFRED R. C. SELWYN.—I have lately made an interesting discovery of tungsten minerals at a Canadian locality, some of them occurring in remarkably fine crystals. This is the first time that this metal has been noted in Canada. A detailed description is in preparation and will shortly appear.

Geological Survey of Canada, Ottawa.

III. BOTANY.

1. *Some Museums and Botanical Gardens in the Equatorial Belt and in the South Seas* (Third Paper).—Before describing the remaining gardens in Australasia, it will be well to make mention of the *Technological Museum at Sydney*, which contains illustrations of the valuable treatise on the useful plants of Aus-

tralia, by Mr. J. H. Maiden. After the fire which destroyed the Sydney Exhibition building, in September, 1882, Mr. Maiden began the discouraging task of forming a new collection of technological products. The building which was placed at his disposal was formerly the Agricultural Hall of the Exhibition, and is only poorly adapted to the purpose of displaying specimens. In the part of this simple structure which is in his charge, he has brought together an exceedingly large and valuable Museum, which possesses so many features of practical interest for a new country, that no apology will be needed for giving it here what may seem at first to be a disproportionate amount of space. The classification includes (1) Animal products, exclusive of foods. (1a) Economic entomology. (2) Vegetable products, from the raw material through the various stages of manufacture to the finished fabric or other article. This section includes gums, resins, oils, woods, fibers, tans, dyes, drugs, perfumes, Forestry and forest products. (3) Waste products. (4) Foods. (5) Economic Geology. (5a) Ceramics. (5b) Glass. (6) Original specimens of artistic workmanship, coins and medals. (7) Photographs, electrotypes, plaster and other reproductions of examples of art workmanship, where originals are not to be obtained. (8) Ethnological specimens. (9) Metallurgy. (10) Mine-engineering. (11) Strength of materials, etc. (12) Military and Naval. Fire-arms for hunting. Traps, etc. (13) Transportation. (14) Agriculture. (15) Instruments of precision. Apparatus for diagnosis, etc. (16) Sanitary appliances. (17) Educational arrangements. (18) Chemical and pharmaceutical products. (19) Models of patents. (20) Trade Journals. This outline of a classification which is substantially the same as that used at South Kensington, has been found well adapted to the wants of the young Colonial community, and might be found very useful in our smaller Technological Museums in this country.

profitably used by British workmen. Here, in a far distant colony, educational appliances of the same kind, specially adapted to the modified surroundings, are thoroughly appreciated by the public. The success has been so great that branch museums have been established in other parts of New South Wales, all under the care of the curator of the head office at Sydney.

As noted in a former paper, there are other technological museums in Australasia, somewhat on the plan of that at Sydney, and all of them are accomplishing much in the development of the colonies. It is pleasing to note, further, that these, together with the natural history and the art museums, are well supported, being everywhere in these colonies recognized as important factors in education. Some of these museums have been already referred to: in this communication reference must be made to still others. The Sydney Museum, under the curatorship of Dr. E. P. Ramsay is very rich in some of the departments, notably that of ornithology. At the time of my visit, in February, a large portion of the building was undergoing repairs and additions were being made. In Sydney, as in other centers of learning in the colonies, there are strong local societies for the encouragement of science, but until the formation of the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science, there was no general organization. Professor Liversidge of Sydney, who was the prime mover in the establishment of the Association, must view with great satisfaction the happy results which have followed his successful work.

Brisbane, the capital of Queensland, is in latitude $27^{\circ} 28' S$. and about five hundred miles north of Sydney (over 700 by rail). The climate is very much like that of northern Florida and permits a wide range of plants to be cultivated in the Botanical Gardens. There are two Botanic Gardens in this city, neither of them very large but both kept in good condition and of much use to the colony. The one which is properly a governmental establishment occupies a portion of one of the peninsulas formed by the curves of the Brisbane river, and, owing to its lying so low, is sometimes partly inundated by freshets. At the time of my visit, the traces of damage from one of these floods had not been wholly obliterated. The grounds contain many interesting sub-tropical plants with not a few which are truly tropical. Changes which have been inaugurated by the new curator, Mr. Philip MacMahon, promise to be substantial improvements both in selection and arrangement.

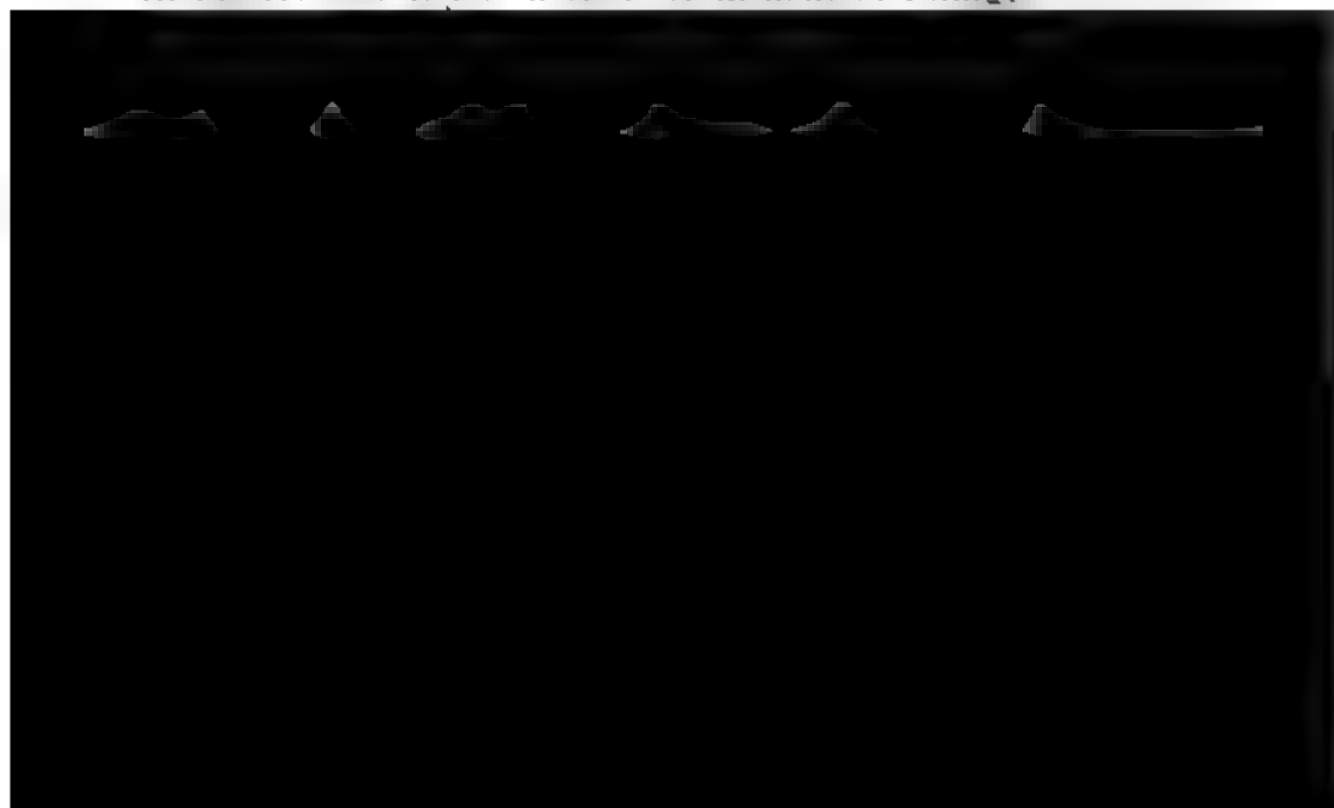
The other garden is close by the two parks, Bowen and Victoria, and attracts a large number of visitors on pleasant days. It is under the management of the Society of Acclimatization, and has for its curator Mr. Souter. The classes of plants are much like those in the government garden, but a good proportion of the specimens are older or at least larger. The propagating department was very interesting. A catalogue of the plants of

the gardens has been prepared by the active colonial botanist of Queensland, Mr. F. M. Bailey. The manual of the Queensland Flora by Mr. Bailey is full and convenient.

Mr. Bailey was formerly a resident of South Australia and possesses a large acquaintance with Australian plants. He places his knowledge most freely at the service of those who, like myself, have during a hurried journey, only a limited time in which to examine localities of special interest.

Attention should be called in passing to the fact that two Americans now fill positions of responsibility in the colonial departments of agriculture. These are Dr. N. A. Cobb, of Sydney, and Professor E. N. Shelton, of Brisbane. Dr. Cobb, formerly of Worcester, Mass., studied at Jena. He is now conducting investigations in animal and vegetable pathology in New South Wales. Professor Shelton is instructor in agriculture in Queensland. The writer is indebted to them and their associates for innumerable courtesies.

Of the remaining gardens in Australia proper, I had opportunity to examine with care only one, namely, that at Geelong. This is in the colony of Victoria, about fifty miles from Melbourne. It is situated delightfully on the shores of Coris Bay, and like many others of its class, is practically a city park. Such pleasure grounds differ from those in our own country chiefly in the prominence which is given to interesting species of plants. Not only are foreign plants used freely for decorative purposes, but they are chosen apparently with a view to impart to the park distinctive features as a botanic garden. Nearly all of the gardens, large and small, make great use of what are called bush-houses. These are simple frame structures roofed with slats having gaps between, admitting plenty of air, but affording shelter and shade. They are particularly adapted to Ferns and Aroids, and lend themselves readily to artistic treatment of foliage.



supported on the most meagre allowance, but presenting some interesting features. The collection of rare New Zealand plants, made by Mr. John McBean, is worthy of attentive study. At Christchurch, in Canterbury, the garden is much more extensive. Its curator, Mr. Taylor, had but very lately taken charge, but he indicated certain improvements in prospect. The native plants are well shown by good specimens, a good deal of care having been taken to secure types and varietal forms. It was my good fortune to be conducted through this garden in one of my visits, by Professor Kirk, whose labors in connection with the New Zealand Flora are everywhere known. He is now engaged in editing a new edition of Sir Joseph Hooker's Handbook of the Flora of New Zealand, a work now out of print. Professor Kirk's Forest Flora of New Zealand is a magnificent volume carefully illustrated. The fidelity of the drawings is remarkable.

The last of the gardens in New Zealand visited by me was that at Wellington. It is situated on the hill back of the city, and possesses chiefly the characteristics of a park.

Dunedin, Christchurch, and Wellington, to which we may add also Auckland, have excellent local museums. The one at Dunedin is growing rapidly in the direction of zoology. This is under the charge of Professor T. Jefferey Parker. Christchurch museum is widely known from the collections of bones of extinct birds which were brought together by the late Dr. Julius von Haast. The museum is extensive in many departments, particularly ethnology, but it needs re-arrangement. This it will doubtless receive soon from its new curator, Dr. H. O. Forbes, the naturalist whose studies in the Eastern Archipelago are familiar to all our readers. The cathedral city of Christchurch is the home of Professor Hutton of Canterbury college. Wellington is the capital of New Zealand. Its museum is extensive, but inadequately provided with proper exhibition rooms. The display of ethnological specimens is exceedingly good, being arranged in the most effective manner. The Auckland museum is also rich in ethnological specimens.

I have purposely deferred to the last, a brief description of the local museum at Hobart, Tasmania. Mr. Alexander Morton, the curator, has carried out to the furthest extent his plan of establishing a Tasmanian exhibition. In the first place, it is comprehensive, taking in all departments of natural history, as well as geology, archaeology and ethnology, in other words, natural history in the widest sense. As a rule, specimens from other places are used wholly for comparison. The arrangement in each department is simple and perfectly intelligible to the person of average intelligence, and each specimen is very fully described on its label. Almost every museum in all Australasia seeks rightly to make the exhibits attractive and instructive, especially in the line of local matters. The collections at Hobart are therefore only a conspicuous example of what can be done on a small scale and with very limited means.

Another characteristic of all the Australasian museums is highly commendable, namely the tenacity with which they all cling to rare specimens of archaeological and ethnographical interest, instead of utilizing them for exchange. Those of us who deplore the disintegration of collections will sympathize heartily with the policy adopted in the South.

By and by, the time will doubtless come when, under some system of federation, a capital city for all the colonies will be selected, in which a central museum may gather for comparison all the rarer of these now scattered treasures, but it is to be hoped that none of these which are unreplaceable will be suffered to leave the country, at least until the fragmentary history of the fast vanishing races is secured. This was impressed upon the writer on his visit to one of the museums before alluded to, in which there was a fairly large collection of ceremonial knives and weapons. The curator pointed out the slight differences existing between the allied groups and stated that some of the types of manufacture are no longer to be met with, in a genuine form. It is worthy of note that excellent imitations of some of the rarer types are to be obtained of dealers, but it is seldom that genuineness is claimed even for the cleverest of the copies.

Frequent reference has been made in these papers to the very general interest felt by the Australasian public in matters pertaining to applied science. It is because of this widespread interest that the botanic gardens and museums are so well sustained. Further, it is on this account that the various institutions which deal with technology, as in Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney, are generously supported. There are certain social and economic factors which render it less easy than might be supposed, to give to these and kindred institutions all the aid they need; taking these factors into consideration, it must be confessed that practical scientific education receives in the southern hemisphere a

retiring President, Prof. Goodale, on some of the Possibilities of Economic Geology makes the opening article of this number.

The Vice-Presidents of the sections appointed are the following. A, Mathematics and Astronomy, Prof. J. R. Eastman, of the Naval Observatory, Washington; B, Physics, Prof. B. F. Thomas, State University, Columbus, Ohio; C, Chemistry, Dr. Alfred Springer, Cincinnati; D, Mechanical Science and Engineering, Prof. J. B. Johnson, Washington University, St. Louis; E, Geology and Geography, Prof. H. S. Williams, Cornell University; F, Biology, Prof. S. H. Gage, Cornell University; H, Anthropology, W. H. Holmes, Ethnological Bureau, and I, Economical Science and Statistics, Prof. S. Dana Horton, Pomeroy, Ohio.

Prof. Putnam is continued as Permanent Secretary. Rochester, New York, was selected as the next place of meeting.

List of papers accepted for reading.

Section A. Mathematics and Astronomy.

A. S. CHRISTIE: A digest of the literature of the mathematical sciences.

G. L. DOOLITTLE: Latitude of the Sayre Observatory.

G. C. COMSTOCK: The secular variation of terrestrial latitudes.

G. W. HOLLEY: Groups of stars, binary and multiple.

J. A. BRASHEAR: Description of the great spectroscope and spectrograph, constructed for the Halstead Observatory, Princeton, N. J. Note on some recent photographs of the reversal of the hydrogen lines of solar prominences.

FRANK H. BIGELOW: Standardizing photographic film without the use of a standard light. Exhibition and description of a new scientific instrument, the aurora-inclinometer.

DAVID P. TODD: On a modified form of zenith telescope for determining standard declinations. On the application of the "photochronograph" to the automatic record of stellar occultations, particularly dark-limb emersions.

O. T. SHERMAN: The zodiacal light as related to terrestrial temperature variation.

ORMOND STONE: On the long-period terms in the motion of Hyperion.

A. MACFARLANE: Principles of the algebra of physics.

HENRY M. PARKHURST: The tabulation of light-curves; description, explanation, and illustration of a new method. Stellar fluctuations; distinguished from variable stars; investigation of frequency.

THOMAS S. FISKE: On certain space and surface integrals.

J. LOUDON: The fundamental law of electromagnetism.

F. P. LEAVENWORTH: Method of controlling a driving clock.

WM. E. HEAL: On the bitangential of the quintic.

J. E. KERSHNER: Parallax of α Leonis.

Section B. Physics.

WILLIAM HOOVER: On the logarithmic mean distance between pairs of points in any two lines.

E. W. MORLEY: A new method for measuring the expansion of solids.

E. W. MORLEY and W. A. ROGERS: Measurement of the expansion of Jessop's steel by a new method.

GUSTAVUS HINRICHS: Statement of the general law determining the fusing and boiling point of any compound under any pressure as simple function of the chemical constitution of the same. The calculation of the boiling point of a liquid under any pressure. Determination of the discontinuity of the fusing points of paraffins by means of analytical mechanics.

WILLIAM ORR: A scheme for a science of color.

B. F. THOMAS: Note on magnetic measurements at Ohio State University. Notes on rotating contact methods of measurement of variable electric magnitudes.

M. A. VEEDER: The periodicity of the Aurora.

C. B. THWING: Color photography by Lippmann's process. Behavior of silver emulsions under long exposure to light.

A. MACFARLANE: On the nomenclature for physical units.

A. MCADIE: Some experiments in atmospheric electricity.

W. M. STINE: Some forms of carbon and alkaline storage batteries. The tangent galvanometer as a voltmeter.

H. A. HAZEN: Do tornadoes whirl? Artificial rain.

N. H. GENUNG and F. J. ROGERS: Observations with a new photometer.

F. J. ROBIERS: Magnesium as a source of light.

BROWN AYRES: Note on the measurement of resistances by alternating currents. The nature of "counter-electromotive force." What should be our fundamental units?

Section C. Chemistry.

CHAS. L. REESE: Preliminary notes on the influence of swamp waters on the formation of the phosphate nodules of South Carolina.

E. T. COX: Land and river phosphate pebbles or nodules of Florida.

ALFRED SPRINGER: A latent characteristic of aluminum.

PAUL C. FREER: The influence of negative atoms and groups of atoms on organic compounds.

E. GOLDSMITH: Gabbro phonolyte.

H. A. WEBER: Raphides the cause of the acidity of certain plants.

GUSTAVUS HINRICHS: The calculation of the boiling point of a paraffin under any pressure. The calculation of the boiling points of isomers from their moment of inertia. Determination of the true position of the carbon atoms in organic compounds by means of analytical mechanics.

F. P. DUNNINGTON: Distribution of titanite oxide on the earth's surface.

THOMAS TAYLOR: The precipitation of fish oil in linseed oil, when used as an adulterant, by silver nitrate solution. The separation and precipitation of oleic acid from linseed oil by silver nitrate.

WALTER MAXWELL: Biological functions of the lecithins.

EDWARD W. MORLEY: Synthesis of weighed quantities of water from weighed quantities of oxygen and hydrogen.

EDWARD HART: Petro-sil-phenol

W. M. JENKINS: Apparatus for distilling water.

DAVID P. TODD: On experimental results obtained with a new form of direct-action propeller.

B. E. FERNOW: The Government timber tests.

JOHN B. JOHNSON: The United States tests of American woods, made at the Washington University Testing Laboratory.

CHAS. L. BOUTON: On the crushing of short prisms of homogeneous material.

THOMAS GRAY: On expansion steam calorimeters. Tests of electric railway plant. On the power absorbed in the cutting of metals.

D. S. JACOBUS: Maximum error due to neglecting the radiation-correction of a Barrus universal calorimeter. Relative economy of carbonic acid as the working fluid of refrigerating machines.

WILLIAM KENT: On the efficiency of the steam jackets of the Pawtucket pumping engine. On the opportunity for mechanical research at the World's Fair.

Section E. Geology and Geography.

JOHN T. CAMPBELL: Source of supply to lateral and medial moraines.

A. E. FOOTE: New meteoric iron from Arizona containing diamonds.

G. K. GILBERT: Post-glacial anticlinal ridges near Riply and Caledonia, New York.

WARREN UPHAM: Processes of mountain building and their relationship to the earth's contraction.

HENRY LAMPARD: Notes on an extinct volcano at Montreal, Canada.

E. D. COPE: (A) On a new horizon of fossil fishes. (B) On the cranial characters of *Equus excelsus* Leidy.

JOSEPH F. JAMES: On problematic organisms and the preservation of Algae as fossils. On the age of the Mount Pleasant, Ohio, beds.

WILLIAM HALLOCK: Preliminary report of observations at the deep well near Wheeling, W. Va.

T. C. HOPKINS: The Eureka shale of northern Arkansas.

T. C. CHAMBERLIN: The altitude of the eastern and central portions of the United States during the Glacial period.

W. J. MCGEE: Neocene and Pleistocene continental movements.

A. WANNER: Fossil tracks in the Triassic of York county, Pa.

M. N. MITIEVIER: New footprints of the Connecticut Valley.

LESTER F. WARD: The plant-bearing deposits of the American Trias. Principles and methods of geologic correlation by means of fossil plants.

HENRY F. OSBORN: A reply to Professor Marsh's note on Mesozoic Mammalia.

JAMES M. SAFFORD: Exhibition of certain bones of *Megalonix* not before known.

R. D. SALISBURY: On the probable existence of a second driftless area in the Mississippi basin.

FRANK LEVERETT: The Cincinnati ice-dam.

LEON S. GRISWOLD: The structure of the Ouachita uplift of Arkansas.

C. R. VAN HISE: The relations of the Archean and the Algonkian in the northwest.

HERMAN L. FAIRCHILD: Results of a well-boring at Rochester, N. Y.

E. W. CLAYPOLE: On a deep bore near Akron, Ohio.

R. W. SHUFELDT: A study of the fossil Avifauna of the Silver Lake region, Oregon.

J. CRAWFORD: The peninsula and volcano Cosignina. The geological survey of Nicaragua.

F. B. TAYLOR: The highest old shore line on Mackinac Island.

J. E. TODD: Striae and slickensides at Alton, Illinois.

Section F. Biology.

SIMON H. GAGE: Notes on the physiological and structural changes in Cayuga Lake lampreys. The transformation of the vermilion spotted newt.

IDA H. HYDE: Notes on the heart of certain mammals.

J. OWEN DORSEY: Siouan onomatopes interjections, and phonetic types. Games of Teton, Dakota, children.

G. H. PERKINS: On a collection of stone pipes from Vermont. On bone, copper and slate implements found in Vermont.

MERWIN MARIE SNELL: The importance and methods of the science of comparative religion.

ANITA NEWCOMB MCGEE: An experiment in human stirpiculture.

ZELIA NUTTALL: Relics of ancient Mexican civilization.

EDWARD S. MORSE: Bow-stretchers. Prehistoric bows.

ALICE C. FLETCHER: The Nez Percé country.

FRANK LEVERETT: Relation of a Loveland, Ohio, implement-bearing terrace to the moraines of the ice-sheet.

LAURA OSBORNE TALBOTT: Utility of psychical study of child life.

ALBERT GATSCHET: Origin of the name Chautauqua.

FRANK HAMILTON CUSHING: Outlines of Zuni creation and migration myths considered in their relation to the Ka-ka and other dramas or so-called dances.

F. W. PUTNAM: An ancient human cranium from Southern Mexico.

C. M. WOODWARD: The length of a generation.

CHAS. A. HIRSCHFELDER: Burial customs of the Hurons.

JAMES MOONEY: The Messiah religion and the ghost dance.

FRANK BAKER: Study of a dwarf.

ATREUS WANNER: Stone drills and perforations in stone, from the Susquehanna River.

GERARD FOWKE: Some Archaeological contraventions.

W. H. HOLMES: On the distribution of some implements in the tide-water province. Aboriginal novaculite quarries in Arkansas.

JOSEPH JASTROW: Study of automatic motion.

W. H. BABCOCK: Race survivals and race mixture in Great Britain.

Section I. Economic Science and Statistics.

J. S. BILLINGS: The census counting machine (with exhibition of the machine at work).

ALEX. S. CHRISTIE: On a measure of the reliability of census enumeration.

LESTER F. WARD: A national university; its character and purposes. The science and art of government.

W. J. MCGEE: The southern oil fields.

J. R. HINTON: Agriculture by irrigation; some social economic possibilities.

B. E. FERNOW: Water management the problem of the future.

C. R. DODGE: The needs of the American flax fibre industry.

B. W. SNOW: The necessity for State supervision of railway extension.

LAURA OSBORNE TALBOT: The economic value of cooking schools in the District of Columbia.

RICHARD T. COLBURN: The code of inheritance.

HENRY FARQUHAR: Numerical relations between amount and value of United States potato crop and amount of importations. United States mercantile marine and duty rates.

H. W. WILEY: The muck soils of the Florida Peninsula.

ROBERT T. HILL: The artesian wells and underground waters of central Texas.

MANLEY MILES: Energy as a factor in rural economy.

ALEX. D. ALEXANDER: World's Columbian Exposition.

EDWARD ATKINSON: Free coinage; Why not?

EDWARD T. PETERS: The coinage ratio in our silver policy.

GEO. A. PRIEST: The Eleventh Census and statistics of manufacture. A permanent Census Bureau.

Mrs. M. C. BAKER: Tabulation errors of census.

C. V. RILEY: The locust or grasshopper outlook.

CHAS. S. HILL: Immigration as an economic sociologic problem. The economy and thrift of machinery.

Entomological Club.

- L. O. HOWARD: The Encyrtinæ with branched antennæ.
 H. G. HUBBARD: Insect life in the hot springs of Yellowstone National Park.
 E. A. SCHWARTZ: Preliminary notes on the insect fauna of the Great Salt Lake, Utah.
 J. A. LINTNER: On the occurrence of the Pear midge, *Diplosis pyrivora*. Notes on the Pear tree Psylla, *Psylla pyricola*, in the Hudson River Valley. On the eye-spotted bud moth, *Tinetocera ocellana*, in Western New York. On some of our *Oryctes*. Exhibition of the luminous females of *Phengodes*, species.
 J. B. SMITH: Note on the habits of *Xyleborus dispar*. Habits of *Volucella fasciata*. Notes on the classification of the Lepidoptera. A revision of the genus *Cucullia*. Staining insect structures.
 E. W. CLAYPOLE: Means of preserving larvæ for class use. A substitute for cork.
 H. E. WOOD: Scrow worm feeding on vegetable matter.
 D. S. KELLICOTT: Notes on two borers destructive of mountain ash.
 B. P. MANN: The bibliography on Entomology.
 C. V. RILEY: Notes on *Sphecius speciosus*. Some interesting Phylloxera. Notes on the larval habits of *Megaphysa*.
 M. E. MURTFELDT: Longevity and vitality of *Ixodes* and *Trombidium*. Modification of habit in paper wasps.

2. *The British Association*.—The meeting of the British Association was opened at Cardiff, Wales, on Wednesday, the 19th of August. The able address of the President, Professor William Huggins, treating of the progress of Astronomy through spectroscopic observations, is published in full in *Nature* of August 20th. The reader is referred to this and the following numbers of *Nature* for the addresses, also of the Presidents of Sections, and for abstracts of the more important papers presented. The next meeting will be held at Edinburgh, under the Presidency of Sir Archibald Geikie, commencing on the 3d of August, 1892.

OBITUARY.

THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

[THIRD SERIES.]

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ART. XXXIV.—*The Solution of Vulcanized India Rubber ;*
by CARL BARUS.

1. INTRODUCTORY.—In my work* on the solubility of glass in water, I showed that in proportion as the state of dissociation or the molecular instability of glass is increased with rise of temperature, the solvent action of water increases at an enormously rapid rate; that inasmuch as the solution takes place between a solid and a liquid, sufficient pressure must be applied to keep the fluid in the liquid state, whenever the vapor tension at the temperature in question exceeds the atmospheric pressure. Thus, at 100°, the action of liquid water on glass is nearly negligible; but even at 185° solution occurs at so rapid a rate that capillary tubes may become filled with solid hydrated silicate, in place of water, in an hour. Here, however, about 10 atm. must be applied to keep the solvent in the liquid state essential to speedy reaction.

2. *The present application.*—Having attempted to apply the same principle to the actual solution of vulcanized India rubber, I obtained confirmatory results at once. To my knowledge this material has not heretofore been advantageously dissolved in a volatile reagent, or in any reagent by which it is speedily and copiously taken into solution, and from which it may be conveniently obtained. Cf. § 4, note.

It follows by analogy from § 1, that the rubber must be hot enough to be in a state of dissociation, i. e., that the coherence of the rubber-sulphur molecules must show an instability in regard to whatever solvent may be used. It follows, more-

* This Jour., xxxviii, p. 408, 1889. Ibid. xli, p. 110, 1891.

over, that the system of rubber and solvent is to be kept under pressure sufficient to insure the liquid state of the solvent. It follows obviously that this temperature must only be so high, *cæt. par.*, as to change in the least degree possible, the useful character of the rubber eventually to be deposited from solution. Hence, I act on vulcanized India rubber at the lowest convenient temperature facilitating the solvent action, and at a pressure preferably exceeding the vapor tension of the solvent at the given temperature. Whatever other favorable action pressure may exert (such, for instance, of forcing the fluid into the physical pores of the semi-solid by a principle akin to Henry's law) is clear gain. In my machine* it is rather more convenient to act under 100 atm., or more, than at lower pressures. Hence I did not scruple to use pressures as large as, or above, this, testing the adequacy of low pressures, however, by special experiment. §§ 18, 20.

The samples of vulcanized rubber acted on were five in number, and their character may be detailed as follows:

a. Very elastic† sheet rubber, usually not pigmented, translucent in thin films, brownish in color, used for rubber bands and sheeting, chemical rubber tubing, etc.

b. Less elastic and harder rubber, pigmented gray, opaque, largely used for rubber tubing, etc.

c. Non-elastic, pigmented rubber, flexible, opaque gray, used for low class rubber tubing and low class merchandise in general.

d. Ebonite.

e. Same as *a*, rotted by age and exposure.

3. *Solution in carbon disulphide.*—From experiments made at 100° and 160°, it appears that elastic sheet rubber (*a*), is not fully soluble in CS₂ in a reasonable time, if at all. It is quite

15 atm., but need not exceed 30 or 40 atm. Inasmuch as CS_2 thus unites with rubber in any proportions, clear brown solutions of any viscosity may be obtained. Diluting such (thick) solutions with cold CS_2 , the solvent is first greedily absorbed; but the final complete solution of the unagitated syrupy rubber takes place very slowly. Finally, by exposing any of the solutions to air, the CS_2 evaporates, and the dissolved vulcanized rubber is regained without sacrifice of its original non-viscid quality. Similarly fissured brittle sheet rubber or tubing (*e*), which has become useless for practical purposes by age, is quite soluble in CS_2 at 200° , so far at least as its undecomposed portion is concerned. Elastic gray rubber (*b*), dissolves completely to a gray liquid, in which the pigment is suspended. § 16. The concentrated solution hardens at once on exposure to air, reproducing a rubber of nearly the qualities (*b*). The same is true of the non-elastic sample (*c*). Treatment at 310° resulted in a decomposition of the rubber.

Commercial ebonite (*d*) is first partially devulcanized at 200° , (excess of rubber) and eventually dissolves in excess of solvent. The partially devulcanized product is elastic on drying, but finally hardens to a tough solid having a leathery quality. The solution leaves a black stain, with free sulphur apparent after evaporation. § 15. Gases are frequently evolved during solution of highly vulcanized rubber in CS_2 . §§ 17 and 19.

As a whole my experiments show that excess of sulphur is first removed by the solvent, after which the vulcanized rubber itself passes into solution. § 15.

4. *Solution in liquids of the paraffine series.*—The elastic rubbers (*a* and *e*) dissolve easily in liquid mineral oils, at 200° . The pressure necessary will, of course, vary with the boiling point of the oil used, and may be as high as 50 atm. in the very volatile gasolenes. Commercial gasolene, though a good solvent of the rubbers *a* and *e*, is less powerful in case of *b* and *c*, unless excess of solvent be used. On exposure to air, the gasolene evaporates, leaving a residue which soon hardens. Mineral oils of a higher carbon order than gasolene, petroleum,* for instance, dissolves the rubbers *a* and *e* even more easily. The solution, however, dries only after much time and probably only in thin films. Solubility seems to increase as the oil lies higher in the carbon series. §§ 12, 18.

* Looking up the literature of the subject. I found that John J. Montgomery (Cf. Letters Patent No. 308,189, November, 1884, U. S. Patent Office), describes a process for the solution of vulcanized rubber. His statement of the temperature and pressure necessary are substantially correct, although he confines his experiments to a petroleum oil boiling at 200° or higher. The oil is subsequently driven off by injections of steam. This is the nearest approach to an available and true solution (a solution which does not remain permanently sticky like the turpentine and other solutions) which I have found. The essential peculiarity of the methods in the above text is solution in volatile solvents.

5. *Solution in turpentine.*—In case of the elastic rubber (*a*), complete solution is at once effected at 200°, whereas at ordinary temperatures the time necessary is enormous, if indeed the solutions in the two cases be the same. The syrupy liquid obtained at 200° seems to dry in very thin films. Special experiments made at 160° showed that no reasonably speedy solution takes place even in liquid turpentine at this temperature, thus corroborating the inferences of §§ 1, 2, 3. Gray rubber (*b*) is acted on with greater difficulty at 210°. The solution leaves a white glossy stain which hardens. Pressure need not exceed 5 atm.

6. *Solution in chloroform and carbon tetrachloride.*—Elastic sheet rubber (*a*) dissolves at once in liquid CHCl_3 at 210°. Pressure should exceed 15 atm. and need not be larger than 25 or 30 atm. Solutions of any degree of viscosity seem to be obtainable. They dry at once on exposure to air, leaving a hard residue relatively dark in color. Possibly this was due to the presence of sulphur in the chloroform. § 15. Gray rubber (*b*) is attacked with decomposition of the solvent and evolution of gas.

7. *Solution in aniline.*—Solution in the liquid at 200° takes place at once, in case of elastic rubbers (*a*). Pressure need not exceed a few atmospheres. Thin films apparently dry on long exposure.

8. *Solution in animal oils.*—Neither in the case of sperm oil, nor of lard oil was the elastic rubber (*a*) dissolved on removing from the piezometer. Both disintegrated on standing, to a solution, often with slow evolution of gas.

9. *Treatment with glycerin.*—At 200° no solution occurs. Glyceric alcohols were not examined. Cf. § 12.

13. *Treatment with ketones.*—India rubber (*a*) treated with liquid acetone at 200° , is converted into a sticky paste from which it hardens at once on exposure to air. Pressure should exceed 15 atm., but need not be greater than 30 or 40 atm.

14. *Treatment with water and mineral acids.*—In no case was there a trace of true solution at 210° . Water probably enters the physical pores of the elastic rubber (*a*), as this substance becomes superficially rough and warty on drying in steam at 200° , after being treated with liquid water at the same temperature. It does not melt. § 18. Strong hydrochloric acid (1 : 2) has no obvious effect, while strong sulphuric acid (1 : 3) seems only to char the rubber. Treating gray rubber (*b*), with HCl, I found its solubility in CS_2 , C_6H_6 , and gasoline to have decreased.

15. *Treatment for vulcanization. Liquid ebonite.*—Liquid ammoniac polysulphide at 185° or 200° does not change the appearance of gray rubber (*b*) markedly; but the sample loses its elasticity and shows a semi-plastic consistency. This I believe to be due to additional vulcanization induced by the polysulphide. If now the sample be treated with liquid CS_2 at 200° , the solvent is decomposed with the evolution of much gas, and the rubber restored to its original elastic quality. The gas is liberated throughout the mass of the rubber, and the sample, when taken out of the tube, has the form of an enormously inflated cellular sack, which issues from the glass tube explosively, but soon collapses on exposure to air. As a whole these results agree with the behavior found for ebonite in § 3. In both cases it is possible to pass from a more vulcanized to a less vulcanized solvent by treating an excess of rubber. It will be shown below, § 19, that the gas evolved is probably due to the double decomposition of water and CS_2 .

More interesting is the direct vulcanization of a rubber solution, to liquid ebonite, by aid of a solution of sulphur. In case of elastic sheet rubber (*a*), this even begins at 160° ; but it is more complete at 185° and 210° . In case of pure (non-vulcanized) rubber dissolved in CS_2 with excess of sulphur, scarcely any change of the flesh color is observed at 160° , and the sulphur crystallizes out of the solvent in needles, on exposure. At 185° and 210° , however, the charge turns black, showing complete vulcanization. If equal masses of vulcanized rubber (*a*) and sulphur be treated, the product, after heating to 210° , is not dissolved nor soluble, until the excess of sulphur is removed. §§ 3, 15. Gas is often evolved. §§ 17, 19. In proportion as less sulphur is used relatively to the rubber, the product becomes more immediately soluble and less gas is evolved. Adding about 20 per cent of dissolved sulphur to the elastic rubber (*a*), I obtained serviceable solutions of ebo-

nite, on treating at 200° either in CS_2 alone, or in mixtures, § 16, of this liquid with gasolene, benzol, etc. In most cases these harden very quickly to a jet-black enamel. With less sulphur the color is brown in thin films.

16. *Solution in mixtures of solvents, and solution of mixed gums.*—By acting on vulcanized rubbers with mixed solvents of the above kind, I obtained very satisfactory results. All the rubbers mentioned (*a* to *e*), ebonite excepted, pass easily into true solution by such treatment. Thus the gray elastic rubber (*b*) dissolves at once in a mixture of CS_2 with gasolene, or benzol, or ether, etc.; or of benzol and toluol; or less easily in mixtures of benzol and gasolene; etc. Ebonite is partially devulcanized, and would probably be dissolved in large excess of solvent. § 3. No gas was evolved in any case, § 19, which is an advantage of this method. In all cases the solutions hardened rapidly on exposure to air, yielding the pigmented rubber if the solution be shaken, or a purer rubber, if the sediment be removed by subsidence and decantation.

Equally feasible is the solution of mixed gums in a suitable solvent at 200° . Thus I made solutions of mixed vulcanized rubber and gutta percha in CS_2 , which dried at once on exposure to air; mixtures of rubber and shellac dissolved in CS_2 , drying more slowly; mixtures of vulcanized rubber and rosin dissolved in CS_2 and in gasolene, which dried in thin films only after long exposure; etc.

17. *Direct devulcanization.*—When, by any of the above methods a solution of vulcanized rubber is obtainable, direct devulcanization may be attempted by mixing the charge with some sulphur absorbent. Such material must be chosen which

scarcely attacked.* In fusing impregnated india rubber, § 18 frequently noticed that the colder ends of the mass were equally discolored. Possibly, therefore, the sulphur at 200° may be gradually segregated by diffusion or evaporation. My experiments on this subject failed.

18. *Fusion of impregnated rubber.*—If vulcanized india rubber be impregnated or saturated by digesting it with the cold reagent (any solvent of pure rubber), for a suitable time (a few minutes to many hours), the swelled mass not only shows a relatively low melting point, but it remains liquid after cooling, provided the solvent is not allowed to escape. This is an observation of practical importance, since the retorts† can thus be charged with solid or dry rubber, a minimum solvent be used in treating or lost by evaporation, and concentrated solutions be obtained often fit to be used at once. The rubber so melted hardens on exposure. Finally the pressure necessary in this case is the smallest possible, and may be below the data given for the divers solvents above.

The quantity of solvent retained by solid rubber is very large: Thus elastic sheet rubber will hold 7 or 8 times its weight of CS_2 , or 1 to 2 times its weight of naphtha. Gray rubber (elastic) absorbs more than its weight of naphtha; etc.

Experiments may be cited as follows: Non-impregnated vulcanized rubbers (*a* to *e*) do not melt if exposed in a closed tube at 210° . Only in the case of very slightly vulcanized pure rubber gum is there a trace of fusion perceptible at the edges, and here it may even be due to a stain of dirt (oil) accidentally left there. Gray rubbers (*b*, *c*) with a superficial coating of exuded sulphur, turn black from the formation of a film of ebonite.

All the india rubbers (*a* to *e*) fuse at 210° , when previously saturated, or nearly so, with cold carbon disulphide, and exposed in a close-fitting glass tube. If the pressure be reduced by a pillary aperture at one end of the otherwise closed glass tube, if the tube be only partially filled and the empty end kept closed, the impregnating solvent is merely distilled off, and no fusion takes place. Whereas at 160° fusion scarcely occurs, melting seems to be complete in the well impregnated elastic rubber (*a*) at 175° . There is therefore an approximate coincidence of the thermal data in the present and in the above paragraphs.

* Fortunately, therefore, steel apparatus is available on a large scale. An interesting question occurs as to what becomes of the carbon, in the case where lithium, mercury, copper, etc., are attacked by hot liquid CS_2 and not by cold CS_2 .

† The present experiments were made in closed glass tubes, nearly filled with impregnated rubber. After fusion the mass frequently appeared to have sunk. Cf. § 2.

Similar results were obtained with benzol, with gasolene and higher petroleum oils, etc. Fusion is absent or only incipient at 160° , and more than complete at 210° , provided the gasolene be not too volatile. §§ 4, 12. In general the gray rubbers (*b*, *c*) fuse to a more viscous mass than the gum rubbers (*a*), the consistency of cold solutions in the latter case about that of treacle.

The occurrences of this paragraph therefore would resemble the fusion of a salt in its water of crystallization, but for the exceptional behavior that impregnated vulcanized rubber after fusion retains a consistency which is liquid relatively to the original non-impregnated charge. The analogy with the solution of starch, or of gluten, is thus more close and immediate. In all these cases the solid swells up when impregnated with the solvent, and fuses to a relatively less viscous consistency, or to a thin solution, when a certain temperature (below 100° in case of starch and gluten and above 160° in case of vulcanized india rubber) has been reached. Hence it is not unreasonable to suspect that even ordinary dry wood, or woody tissue, which swells to a marked degree when impregnated with water, may pass into actual solution if the temperature at which the water acts is sufficiently high, and the pressure above the vapor tension of water at that temperature.*

I mention finally that the reduction of melting point produced in vulcanized india rubber by the impregnating reagents may perhaps advantageously be discussed in accordance with Raoult's law; but owing to the difficulty of defining the melting point of the unimpregnated rubber, and the close proximity of the melting points after impregnation with different reagents (CS_2 , C_2H_6 , gasolene) my views on this subject here

long standing in sealed vessels a gradual thickening of the liquid with final coagulation seems to be the invariable result. Thus there must be a gradual growing together of the individual particles, until finally the whole solution forms one coherent gelatinous mass.

To summarize: Suppose the coherence of rubber to be due to (cohesive) affinities, capable of being saturated like ordinary affinities. Then in case of impregnation with a solvent, a part of these combine with the similar affinities of the solvent. The result is the decided decrease of tenacity (observed). To liquefy the impregnated sample, the residual cohesive forces of the rubber must be withdrawn, and this can be done by heat. The liquid so obtained, I do not conceive to be a true solution, but rather a suspension of particles, the exceeding fineness of which is determined by conditions discussed elsewhere.* Diffusion is thus an excessively slow process, and hence the liquid on cooling need not become solid again. In proportion as the individual particles unite however, coagulation gradually sets in, and its structure is probably that of a fine sponge holding solvent in its interstices. If the coagulated solution be reheated (under pressure), a thin viscid solution is again obtained, which in its turn coagulates.

19. *Behavior of reagents.*—The frequent occurrence of gaseous products in the above experiments made special experiments on the decomposition of reagents necessary. Benzol and gasolene were found stable at 210° , and often above this temperature, both in the presence of water, or of sulphur. §21. Carbon disulphide, however, in addition to relatively slight decompositions producible by sodium, or mercury, or copper (§17), at 210° , is doubly decomposed by water at this temperature, with the evolution of much gas, presumably H_2S and CO_2 . CS_2 remains stable in the presence of zinc white (a common rubber pigment), or of sulphur, or of bright steel, at 210° . §17. Hence a thread of mercury to shut off the experimental tubes, §2, is generally objectionable, as is also a thread of water in case of CS_2 . Moreover the absence of gaseous reaction in case of mixed solvents, §16, is to be attributed to the fact that CS_2 and the water are intentionally separated by layers of benzol or gasolene.

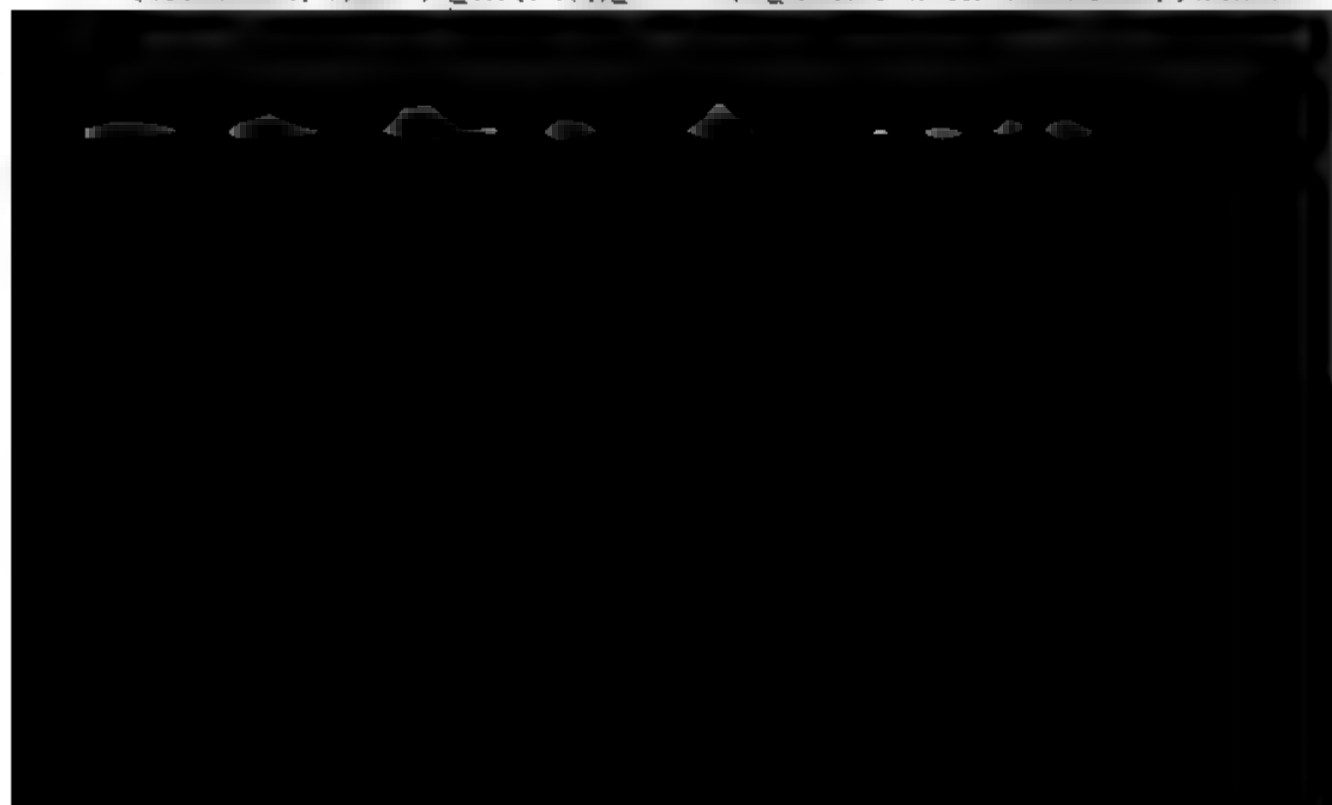
An interesting question is suggested here, as to whether it be possible to express affinity on a scale of temperatures. Let it be required to determine the affinity of a metal for sulphur. At ordinary temperatures not even sodium decomposes CS_2 , whereas such decomposition occurs if the temperature be sufficiently high. Hence the temperature at which the decomposition definitely sets in (for copper sooner than for iron, etc.) is

* Barus: this Journal, xxxvii, pp. 126–128, 1889.

a reciprocal expression of the affinity of the given metal for sulphur,—bearing always in mind that the stability of the solid metallic molecule also enters into the consideration. The arbitrary reagent CS_2 , in its relations to all the metals to be examined, fulfills a similar purpose to an arbitrary spring balance in measuring gravitational forces. § 21.

20. *Summary of the results.*—In the above paragraphs I have therefore indicated a method by which vulcanized india rubber of any quality or character whatever, as well as the undecomposed or reclaimable part of rubber waste, may be dissolved or liquified in a reasonably short time;* the solutions possessing any desirable degree of viscosity or diluteness, from which india rubber may be regained on evaporation of the solvent.

I shall elsewhere describe divers forms of apparatus by which the above operations may be carried out on a larger scale. They are of no interest here; but I mention them since it is only from such work that a full insight into the quality of the rubber deposited from any given solution may be obtained. Experiments made in bulk in this way showed the material deposited from solution to be considerably inferior to the original rubber, both as regards tenacity and elasticity. Its chief value in the physical laboratory will therefore be that of furnishing an air-tight cement or an acid-proof varnish, capable of withstanding more than 200° centigrade. Rubber newly deposited from any of the above solutions presents a very curious case of slowly reacting elasticity. If a thread, say 0.1 cm. thick, be twisted and then let go on a frictionless surface, it will squirm like a live worm for some minutes. If it be stretched, the original length is regained with visible slowness.



whereas the effect of temperature in experiments like the above is manifest, the effect of pressures of the order applied is relatively inappreciable.

21. *Digression.*—From the above paragraphs I infer that the difficulty encountered in endeavoring to dissolve carbon is probably attributable to a relatively high dissociation temperature of the solid carbon molecule. I made many experiments to test this view, in all of which I failed to obtain solution even at low red heat and 600 atm. of pressure. My work thus corroborates the negative results of Hannay* on the direct solution of carbon. My tests were made with gasolene, water, benzol and carbon disulphide, usually at 500° and 500 atm. In case of gasolene I observed at higher temperatures. Usually the reagents were decomposed (particularly CS₂, C₂H₆, and CHCl₃) with the evolution of much gas, while the carbon remained appreciably unaffected. Decomposition by metals (copper corroded by CS₂, and gasolene acted on by palladium) showed sooty deposits only.

ART. XXXV.—*Report of the Examination by Means of the Microscope of Specimens of Infusorial Earths of the Pacific Coast of the United States*; by ARTHUR M. EDWARDS, M.D.


SOME time since I had transmitted to me by Mr. George Gibbs, the geologist of the Northwest Boundary Expedition, a collection of earths gathered at different points on the Pacific coast of the United States in the states of Washington, Oregon and California, as well as British Columbia, with a request that I would make an examination of them by means of the microscope, the more particularly for the purpose of determining the characters of the organic remains to be found in them. Through this means I have been enabled to study and record the discovery of several deposits of minute organisms, and at the same time very materially assist in unraveling the geology of some points of the country hitherto found to be somewhat difficult of comprehension.

At the time these examinations were made, that is to say, in the latter part of the year 1861, very little was known concerning many points in the geology of our Pacific Coast, and my own experience in the study of such earths had been rather slight. Hence, when I made my report in 1862, I was unable

* Hannay: Proc. Roy Soc., lxxx, p. 188, 1880; Chem. News, xli, p. 106, 1880. Cf. Hannay and Hogarth: Chem. News, xli, p. 103, 1880; Mallet and Hannay: Nature, xxii, p. 192, 1880.

to go very fully into the subject of the evident mode of formation of the strata containing the microscopic organisms. Since that time the Geological Survey of the State of California has been undertaken and a much more extended suite of gatherings has come into my hands.

Through the knowledge acquired from the examination of these collections made at various points from Puget Sound to the southernmost border of California, I have been enabled to furnish such information that the history of both the marine and fresh water, so called, Infusorial deposits of that portion of the country has been pretty thoroughly worked out. With regard to the marine strata very little has, as yet, been published. The results arrived at concerning one class of the fresh water strata has been made known in a communication of Professor Whitney's read before the California Academy of Natural Sciences, February 4th, 1867. (Proc. Cal. Academy, vol. iii, p. 319.) These he has therein shown to be the beds of enormous extinct lakes or inland seas, the material of which has been altered in character by the superposition upon it at different periods of lava or sand and gravel or ashes and pumice. In this way it can be readily understood that, as the volcanic action ceases, a new growth of microscopic organisms might take place over the erupted material lying upon the older deposits and, in fact, that many such layers might accumulate one over the other. Such has been the case at various points upon the Pacific Coast from Puget Sound to Lake Mono in Eastern California, which is the most southern point from which I have received such material. At some future time I may have more to say with regard to this class of deposits, for I have examined many of them during the progress of the



from each other only in time and in the fact that in the most recent a certain amount of organic matter usually remains and the material is light and readily pulverulent. We have in the older one, on account of the volcanic heat added to, or without aqueous action, the material has had all of its organic matter removed. And it has become a less or more hard rocky mass of a light color. Hence we have strata of a totally different character. These are of marine origin and of an age supposed to be coincident with the Miocene Tertiary. At all events they are much older than the most ancient fresh water stratum containing Diatomaceæ as yet discovered. Of the mode of formation of these last mentioned strata I shall not now pause to treat, as I have already thrown out some hints respecting my opinions upon this point in some remarks made before the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., January 4th, 1869, an abstract of which will be found in the Bulletin of that association, vol. i, page 11. I have treated of the same subject in a paper read before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Salem meeting, August 25th, 1869. Hereafter I will treat fully of this subject in my report on the microscopic material of the Geological Survey of California now in preparation.

It will be readily perceived that it is fortunate that my report on the matter herein treated of was not published at the time it was sent in, and I feel that I can congratulate myself that Mr. Gibbs has again submitted the matter to me for revision, for at the present time I can do more justice to it and throw light upon some points which, at the time, I was unable to fully comprehend.

The constantly recurring records of the discovery of fossiliferous deposits containing the remains of such minute organisms as the Diatomaceæ, Radiolaria and Rhizopoda, constituting the well known 'Infusorial earths' of most geologists reveal the fact that these atomies play a very important part in the world's future; and while almost every newly found specimen exhibits one, if not more, of what have been considered new species, it proves, at the same time, the cosmopolitan character of many already known forms, which are thus seen to occur spread over the globe in great profusion from the equator to the poles. In some cases these widely-spread species will not vary appreciably, be their dwelling place under the burning sun of the tropics, the more equable climate of the temperate zone or the frozen fields of the poles. Other forms, however, on the contrary, appear to vary to so great an extent with every few degrees of latitude that specimens gathered at the equator and in localities a very little removed therefrom, either north or south, might be supposed, on superficial exam

ination, to be distinct. So markedly is this the case that we not unfrequently find that hasty observers have so classed them and even made use of locality for the determination of specific distinctions. That the Diatomaceæ, which are the organisms with which I shall most particularly treat in this paper, are extremely cosmopolitan in their habits; in fact, perhaps more so than any other group, would seem to be already established, but the imperfect state of our knowledge of them and their life-history at present, leaves us a great deal in the dark as to the full extent of their variation during the lapse of time or through local distribution. Much has yet to be done in this field of investigation and large and widely extended collections made of both the recent and extinct forms, before we can assert that we know anything very certain with regard to their position in the chain of being, their habits, history, or range of variations in time or space. I do not, at the present time, desire to go more fully into this branch of the subject, merely confining myself to a thorough report upon the specimens submitted to me by Mr. Gibbs. The student who desires to follow researches in a field which will yield profitable returns cannot choose for himself one in which less is known, perhaps, than this, and when its applications to geology are considered, for my part, I can hardly imagine one more enticing.

Below I give a list of the specimens sent to me for examination by Mr. Gibbs and which were collected by him during the prosecution of the Northwest Boundary Survey.

* Hot spring, Harrison's lake, British Columbia.

Nahchess river, Washington.

Alkaline deposit, Similkameen river, Washington.

such remains appeared and those that showed signs of yielding definite results were set aside for further study after they had been properly prepared. In this way all of the specimens submitted to me were examined.

Most of them were found to contain no traces of organic remains by means of which might be ascertained their origin, as desired. The presence of the siliceous skeletons of Diatomaceæ in any earth, or deposit of any kind reveals at once the fact that such a deposit has formed beneath the surface of water or, if the remains are not evenly distributed throughout its mass, it may have been overflowed by water having Diatomaceæ living in it. Besides this, it may be also ascertained as to whether it has been thrown down from fresh water or in the ocean. Although this branch of the subject has not received the attention that its importance deserves yet we can with some considerable degree of certainty even determine as to whether the water from which such a deposit was thrown down was a lake, a bog or marsh, an estuary or the open ocean. As the matter comes to be more fully studied and the knowledge of facts is increased we shall doubtless be able to determine these and similar points with a greater degree of accuracy.

The indestructible nature of these skeletons, on account of their consisting mainly if not entirely of silica, deposited during the life of the plant in its tissues, preserves for the student of nature a record of former aqueous submergence, and, as their distinctive characters are not very difficult of recognition by careful students we thus have typical forms of organisms to use for the purpose of determining the marine or fresh water origin of any specimen under examination. At the same time it must be remarked that by far the greatest portion of the time that has been spent by most observers on the Diatomaceæ has been evidently mainly for the purpose of discovering new forms rather than ascertaining the life-history or even the distinctive characters of already known species. So that our lists have become but a heterogeneous mass of mere names applied to often accidental, sometimes distorted or even fractured specimens. I can not too earnestly enter my protest against the recognition of the species-monger as a naturalist; such observations and records as those I allude to do not only not advance our knowledge but certainly retard its progress by placing new obstacles in the path of the student of nature. Elsewhere I have spoken more fully on this subject and shown how it is that this branch of biology has fallen undeservedly into disrepute among scientific naturalists; at the present time I will refrain from saying more than I have already put upon record.

From what has been said with regard to distinguishing the origin of a deposit by means of the minute remains present in it, it will be readily understood that we can thus determine to a certain extent its age, as to whether the overlying water has been fresh, brackish or salt. In the last case we shall find present such oceanic genera as *Triceratium*, *Coscinodiscus*, *Aulacodiscus*, or *Actinocyclus*. If the source of the deposit has been the shallow water along shore we should expect to find littoral species among which would be some of the *Pleuronigma* or *Amphiprora*; often, of course mixed with deeper water forms or even fresh water varieties accidentally mixed by being washed down from elevated stations. On the other hand if we find the genera *Tabellaria*, *Cocconema* or *Himantidium* to be present, the fresh-water origin of the gathering is established. So a group of mixed marine and fresh-water species would indicate the formation of such a deposit under very peculiar circumstances, but such mixtures are extremely rare. One of the few of this character which I have seen being a gathering of living specimens from the St. Johns river in Florida, which on account of its course being nearly North and South, is so affected by the tides that the marine species of *Diatomaceæ* at least are carried up almost to its head. At some future time when the life history of these minute forms is better understood observers will doubtless be able to ascertain from the examination of gatherings of the siliceous skeletons whether they have grown and been deposited in a lake, river or brook, near the level of the sea or at high altitudes as well as the fact of the fresh or salt character of the water. In fact I feel convinced that a time will come when this mode of study applied to deposits generally will reveal

in the case of the Mystic Pond, near Boston, Mass. Here the bed of the pond is much below that of the river which serves as its outlet, so that at the time of high tides the salt water, which on account of its superior density creeps up beneath the fresh water, runs over the bar at the entrance and flows down into the pond, thus mixing the forms of life found therein. An account of this locality with a list of the forms of Diatomaceæ observed in the mud brought up from the bottom of the pond by Messrs. Greenleaf and Stodder will be found in the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History, vol. viii, page 119. So also I have examined a locality of a like kind upon Phillips' Beach between Swampscott and Marblehead, Mass. Here a small mass of fresh water fed at uncertain periods by intermitting streams, by drainage or by infiltration of water through the beach sand, by which the salt is removed, lies a short distance within and at a lower level than the shore and in it grow many fresh water plants and are found several fresh water animals. Yet at times of high tide or during storms the salt water must find egress, for in it I observed marine species of Diatomaceæ in the mud taken from the bottom and, in fact, some few were noticed living in the water of the pond.

The microscope thus applied to geology, in the hands of experienced and competent observers, besides the above, reveals the fact as to whether a gathering under examination be of recent origin, deposited in a pond, lake, river, marsh, bay, or ocean in existence at the time; or contain mostly extinct forms or be situated in time below the alluvial, and hence to be classed among the truly fossil strata. So that by means of such an examination we come to classify specimens containing Diatomaceæ according to the age or mode of occurrence of these forms, and I have provisionally grouped my gatherings into, first: Recent, both marine and fresh water; second, Lacustrine sedimentary, now forming, although in many cases dating their period or origin as far back as the Post-Glacial. The recorded occurrences of similar deposits of fresh water forms in the Tertiary I consider extremely doubtful; third, we have then the deposits to which I have given the distinctive title of sub-Plutonic and the mode of occurrence of which I have alluded to above; fourth, thereafter and lastly we have the true Marine Fossiliferous strata which, as far as recorded, have been found only in the Lower Miocene Tertiary. A subdivision of some of these groups is convenient; as, for instance, the recent gatherings may be so arranged as to indicate the peculiar habitat of the species contained in it; the so-called "natural leathers" and "paper;" the soundings from

the sea-bottom or shell cleanings, as well as harbor muds, the contents of the intestines of marine and fresh water animals and the like be indicated. However, I think that nearly all gatherings may be fairly grouped under the four heads I have adopted.

As the tendency of most persons who have turned their attention to the Diatomaceæ, which are the organisms I shall more particularly consider in this report, has been towards looking for differences where similitudes should have been searched after, I must be permitted to say a few words on that point. The progress of time, the more especially if it be very much extended, may, and in fact will, so change the apparent characters of all living organisms that they can hardly, in the present condition of our knowledge, be distinguished one from another; but they will most assuredly revert to the parent type, even if the modifying influence be continued in power, so strong, so persistent, so fundamental is the inherent germ-force implanted in the individual. The Diatomaceæ are not so liable to be influenced by outward circumstances, apparently, as some other groups; but, at the same time, understood energies do affect them very materially, so as to change their outline, for instance, leaving their main characters of sculpture intact. I very much doubt if time has as great or as lasting an effect in causing such modifications as locality and, therefore, must consider the use of this point as a basis for distinguishing species to be unscientific and unjustified, at least with regard to these organisms.

Among the specimens I have to report upon herein, we have examples of all of the four groups I have adopted, as Recent, Lacustrine, Sedimentary, and sub-Plutonic, under which

* Shookum Chuck, a branch of the Chibalis river which flows into Gray's Harbor, Washington.

* Colseed Bay, Hood's Canal, Washington.

Pit River, eight miles from Fort Crook, Cal.

These may all be supposed to belong to the western or coast slope of the mountain range, although Mr. Gibbs says that that from Pit river, the eastern branch of the Sacramento, may belong to either side.

Of the fifteen earths but seven were found to contain the remains of Diatomaceæ.

* Hot Spring, Harrison's lake, B. C.

This consists of a saline mass evidently deposited by the hot spring, but contains no organic remains.

Nahchess river, Washington.

No organic remains.

Alkaline deposits, Similkamen river, Washington.

This specimen is of very much the same general character as the first.

* Steilacoom Creek, No. 1, Washington.

* Steilacoom Creek, No. 2, "

* Point Roberts, Washington.

* Bluff west of Camp Simiahmoo, Washington.

No organic remains.

* Camp Simiahoo, No. 1, Washington.

A lacustrine sedimentary deposit, containing:

Amphiprora navicularis. *Gomphonema intricatum*. *Himantidium bidens*. *Himantidium gracile*. *Melosira varians*. *Pinnularia major*. *Pinnularia viridis*. *Pinnularia mesolepta*. *Stauroneis anceps*.

Camp Similkamen, No. 2, Washington.

No organic remains.

* Camp Similkamen, No. 3, Washington.

A lacustrine sedimentary deposit, containing:

Amphiprora navicularis. *Cocconema leptoceros*. *Cocconema lanceolatum*. *Cymbella*?. *C.*?. *Gomphonema* (*Pinnularia*) *amphioxys*. *Gomphonema olivaceum*, *Himantidium arcus*. *Himantidium biceps*. *Himantidium bidens*. *Himantidium*?. *Navicula elliptica*. *Navicula cuspidata*. *Navicula amphigomphus*. *Nitzschia* (*Synedra*) *spectabilis*. *Orthosira distans*. *Pinnularia gigas*. *Pinnularia dactylus*. *Pinnularia nobilis*. *Pinnularia mesolepta*. *Pinnularia viridis*. *Pinnularia tabellaria*. *Pinnularia Johnsonii*. *Pinnularia*?. *Stauronies phœnicenteron*. *Surirella craticula*.

Amphiprora navicularis is the one Ehrenberg has given that name to and is quite common in lacustrine sedimentary deposits in this country although I do not remember ever to have seen it anywhere else. The form I have called *Nitzschia spectabilis* evidently belongs to that genus and appears to be identical with *Synedra spectabilis* C. E. Wenish (Syn. Brit. Diat. 1853, 139), who describes a form as *Nitzschia scalaris* W. S., thus claiming the authorship, although he gives *Synedra scalaris* as the original form and Kützing as the founder. The fact is that *Synedra scalaris* was founded by Ehrenberg (Amer. 137, II, ii, 18) and his form was from freshwater at Surinam, and Andover, Conn. A form answering to it in every way is not uncommon in this country in both the recent state and in deposits. It varies much in size and in coarseness of its markings but always preserves essentially the same characters. I cannot see in what particulars *Synedra scalaris* differs from *Synedra spectabilis* except in size, a character which can hardly be considered specific. I prefer to group all of these forms together.

In this specimen *Himantidium soleirolii* occurs with the internal cells described by Ralfs in the Quart. Jour. of Mic. Sci., vi, 14, and which peculiarity has also been seen in *Meridion* and *Odontidium*.

Winass River, Washington.

A hard white mass not readily broken down and contains no organic matter, that having been burned out; in fact it is a specimen of the kind of strata I have mentioned above which Prof. Whitney has shown to have been affected by volcanic heat. On the Columbia River these strata were found for the first time by Fremont and examined by Bailey who however



Epithemia gibberula. *Epithemia granulata.* *Gomphonema dichotomum.* *Odontidium mutabile.* *Orthosira*? *Pinnularia*?.
Synedra capitata. *Synedra radians.* *Tabellaria flocculosum.*

* Colseed Bay, Hood's Canal, Washington. A lacustrine sedimentary deposit containing:

Cocconeis placentula. *Cyclotella rotula.* *Epithemia adnata.* *Epithemia luna.* *Gomphonema vibrio.* *Melosira*? *Navicula elliptica.* *Navicula*?. *Pinnularia major.* *Pinnularia*?. *Orthosira orichalea.* *Odontidium*? *Tetracyclus*?

Pit River, 8 miles from Fort Crook, Cal. A sub-Plutonic deposit.

Amphora ovalis. *Cyclotella Astrea.* *Cyclotella rotula.* *Cymbella*?. *Cymatopleura elliptica.* *Fragillaria striatula.* *Gomphonema capitatum.* *Gomphonema constrictum.* *Gomphonema*?. *Epithemia gibba.* *Epithemia luna.* *Surirella splendida.* *Surirella linearis.* *Tetracyclus lacustris.* *Stauroneis punctata.* *Pinnularia major.* *Orthosira*? *Navicula cuspidata.*

Having now given the results of the examination of the first parcel of earths submitted to me by Mr. Gibbs I will point out some of the results arrived at. Bailey having had sent to him several specimens of so-called 'infusorial earths' as those brought home by Fremont, Blake and others, ascertained, as he supposed, that all of those collected upon the eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada Mountains were of fresh water origin, while those from the Coast Range contained the remains of Diatomaceæ only. It became interesting, therefore, in examining the specimens put into my hands to ascertain if therefrom I was prepared to confirm or refute this assertion of Bailey's, upon which, of course, geologists had depended for drawing deductions. Up to the time of the publication of the paper of Professor Whitney in the Proceedings of the California Academy, which I have alluded to, the true character of these sub-Plutonic deposits was entirely misunderstood. And this arose, doubtless, to a certain extent, from their occurring only in one portion of the world where naturalists have traveled little and where the microscope as applied to geology has as yet not made much progress. But the lacustrine sedimentary, or sub-Peat, deposits are found all over the world and have been much examined by microscopists. That these and the first mentioned should have been classed together and neither of them understood is, perhaps, not so surprising when we consider that few microscopists are naturalists; that instrument having been too often used as a toy and not employed as an instrument of research. It is not to be wondered at perhaps that Bailey did not comprehend the origin and geological position of these two classes of strata and it is to be hoped that what I have said herein will at least

help to prove interesting upon this point. Both of these classes of deposits have been called 'fossil,' but if either of them can be properly so designated it must be the sub-Plutonic one alone; the others are of recent origin and identical deposits are now undergoing formation all over the world. Thus, all through the New England States they are very common. At Bemus Lake, in New Hampshire, the bed of that piece of water when stirred up by means of a pole is seen to be almost white in color and consist entirely of the dead shells of Diatomaceæ. As Bailey's conclusions, although they had been founded upon extremely slight foundations, had been accepted by geologists generally it came to be asserted that no fresh water deposits of Diatomaceæ were to be found upon the coast side of the Sierra Nevada, only marine strata being there seen and not extending to the western slope of the mountains. Hence, it became of interest to determine whether the deposits discovered since Bailey's time in that part of the country bore out his theory or not, and this was one of the questions put to me when these specimens were placed in my hands.

As will be seen, all of the seven deposits which I found to contain the remains of Diatomaceæ, in the above mentioned collection, are of fresh water origin, three of them being decidedly of recent formation, or lacustrine sedimentary, and the other four from the beds of extinct lakes, or sub-Plutonic. It will also be noted that all of them with the exception of one, that from Winass River, are from the western side of the mountains, that one being from the east. However, from what I have already said respecting the mode of formation of these fresh water strata containing Diatoms it will be under

- * 6. 56. Near Monterey, Cal.
- * 7. 53. Pit River, Lower Cañon, Cal.
- * 8. 54. Pit River, Lower California.
- * 9. 60. Monterey, Cal.
- * 10. 57. Monterey, Cal.
- * 11. 58. San Francisco, Cal.
- * 12. 54. Pit River, above Lower Cañon, Cal.
- * 13. Dalles of the Columbia, Oregon.
- * 14. 28. San Diego, Cal.
- * 15. 9. San Pablo Bay, Cal.
- 16. 516. Black Cañon, Colorado River, Cal.
- 17. 506. "White Rock," Colorado River, Cal.
- 18. 519. "White Rock," Colorado River, Cal.
- 10. 496. "White Rock," Colorado River, Cal.
- * 20. 17. Monterey, Cal.
- * 21. 24. Monterey, Cal.
- 22. 155. Psucseeque Creek, Oregon.
- * 23. Monterey, Cal.
- ? 24. 907. [Smithsonian Catalogue.]
- * 25. San Joaquin Valley, Cal.

I have indicated the geographical position of the localities in this list, as far as known, in the same manner as employed in the preceding catalogue, that is to say, those marked with a star (*) are from the western side of the mountains, while the others, with the exception of No. 1, 20, which is from the gap between the Sierra Nevada where it joins the Cascade, which is a portion of the Coast Range, are from the east of the slope.

1. 26. Shores of Lower Klamath Lake, borders of Oregon and California.

The position of the bed from which this specimen was taken and its relation to the overlying trap will be understood from what Dr. Newberry has said in his report on the geology of this section of country. (P. R. R. Report, vol. vi, part II, Geology, pp. 37 and 38.) It is sub-Plutonic.

Cyclotella rotula. *Epithema granulata.* *Orthosira orichalcea.*
Pinnularia viridis.

* 2. 28. Monterey, Cal.

Of this as well as those numbered No. 3, 4, 6, 9, 11, 14, 15, 21, 23, and 25, I will speak hereafter together, as they all came from the same strata of the Miocene Tertiary.

* 5. 55. Pit River Valley, Cal.

From a sub-Plutonic deposit. On the banks of the Pit River these so-called "infusorial marls" present a very strikingly peculiar appearance and often modify very greatly the character of this whole tract of country. Dr. Newberry (p. 32) has pointed out the characters of this district and, in

connection with the examination of these specimens it may be of interest here to quote somewhat from his report. He says that 'they appear on both sides of Pit River at intervals of several miles, being in many places interrupted or covered by the beds of clay. They are perhaps best exposed in the cañon formed by the passage of the river through 'Stoneman's Ridge,' the most conspicuous of the lines of upheaval, which form what is known as the lower cañon of Pit River. They here exhibit a thickness of about fifty feet, but are considerably tilted up, and covered by a thick bed of trap, which has been poured out over them. In some places this alternation of Diatomaceous deposit and trap is often repeated as, for example, on the Pucseeque Creek, a tributary of the Des Chutes River; the bank is capped by hard columnar trap and beneath this are successive strata varying in thickness and forming steps of thirty to forty feet wide. These steps, which at this point number twelve, have been formed by the more ready wearing away by weathering of the 'infusorial' deposits, they being protected above and below to a certain extent by layers of tufa, concrete or trap. These deposits represent the enormous extinct fresh water seas which at one time extended over a large part of our continent. Those who are interested in the subject will find more particulars in the sixth volume of the Pacific Railroad Survey, in the paper by Professor Whitney I have alluded to above, and in a paper read May 16, 1870. before the New York Lyceum of Natural History by Dr. J. S. Newberry and published in the Proceedings for that month. I found the following:

Amphora ovalis. *Cyclotella operculata.* *Cyclotella rotula.*
Euthenia granulata. *Gomphonema intricata.* *Orthosira gran-*

personal examination of the original material in the Bailey Collection, Boston.

* 10. 57. Monterey, Cal.

A sub-Peat deposit of *Melosira varians* with sporangia. There are small quantities of *Synedra radians*, *Nitzschia linearis* and *Fragillaria virescens*.

* 13. Dalles of the Columbia, O.

A sub-Peat deposit containing sand and *Orthosira punctata*.

* 20. 17. Monterey, Cal.

A specimen of a Miocene, Oligocene or Eocene Tertiary as is proved by the shells of Foraminifera contained in it.

* 2. 23. Monterey, Cal.

* 3. 1. San Francisco, Cal.

* 4. San Diego, Cal.

* 6. 56. Near Monterey, Cal.

* 9. 60. Monterey, Cal.

* 11. 58. San Francisco, Cal.

* 14. 28. San Diego, Cal.

* 15. 9. San Pablo Bay, Cal.

* 21. 24. Monterey, Cal.

* 23. Monterey, Cal.

* 25. San Joaquin Valley, Cal.

These specimens are evidently gatherings made at different parts of a marine fossiliferous deposit discovered by W. P. Blake and described by him in the Proceedings of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, vol. vii, page 328 for 1854-5. The locality is mentioned as being about two miles distant from the town of Monterey and the stratum is revealed on the side of a hill some 500 to 600 feet high, consisting for the most part of this white 'infusorial earth' interstratified with compact siliceous layers of a dark material supposed to be bituminous in character. The earth is similar in most of its characters to the celebrated stratum underlying the city of Richmond, Virginia. The Diatomaceæ agree very closely with those of Richmond, Petersburg, Piscataway and Nottingham deposits which extend from the Patuxent River in Maryland to Petersburg in Virginia. The genera most largely represented are:

Actinocyclus.
Actinoptychus.
Arachnoidiscus.
Asteromphalus.
Aulacodiscus.
Auliscus.

Biddulphia.
Campylodiscus.
Coscinodiscus.
Creswellia.
Gephyria.

Grammatophora.
Isthmia.
Navicula.
Rhabdonema.
Triceratium.

This determines, of course, that the species are confined to the ocean, brackish or freshwater. Some experiments I am making would seem to point to the fact that the Diatomaceæ originated in freshwater and were carried down to brackish water and so to the sea. Brackish forms, as *Nitzschia scalaris* C. G. E. have been seen growing in great profusion in a freshwater pond without any outlet, and brackish forms, as *Amphiprora alata* C. G. E., *Amphora aponina* F. T. K., *Bacillaria paradoxa* G., *Cyclotella operculata* F. T. K., *Fragilaria capucina* L. W. D., *Melosira nummuloides* F. T. K., *Navicula minutua* W. S., *Nitzschia angularis* W. S., *N. dubia* W. S., *N. linearis* W. S., *N. reversa* W. S., *Shizomema conferta* W. S., *S. crucigera* W. S., *S. Smithii* C. A. A., *Surirella ovata* F. T. K., and *Synedra tabulata* F. T. K. have been grown in freshwater. The concentration of freshwater in the western lakes, as at "Lake Bonneville" and "Lake Lahontan" have resulted in brackish water.

Newark, N. J. 1891.

ART. XXXVI.—*The Tonganoxie Meteorite*; by E. H. S. BAILEY. With Plate XIII.

[Contributions from the Chemical Laboratory of the University of Kansas, No. II.]

IN "Science" of Jan. 2, 1891, Dr. F. H. Snow published a preliminary notice in regard to the discovery of the Tonganoxie meteorite. The specimen was picked up in 1886, by Mr. Quincy Baldwin, on his farm a mile west of the town of Tonganoxie, Leavenworth County, Kansas. The true nature of the specimen was not understood by the original owner. He experimented with it so far as to make a fish hook from a fragment of it, and thought its occurrence was an indication that there was an iron mine on his farm. Since, however, he was unable to find any more specimens, the iron mine theory was abandoned. Mr. Baldwin disposed of the meteorite to Mr. H. C. Fellow, then Principal of the Friends' Academy in Tonganoxie, and from him it has been purchased by Dr. Snow and it is now in the Museum of the University of Kansas.

The specimen originally weighed a little over twenty-six pounds, but a slice has been cut from the smaller end, in order to obtain a plane surface, that the structure might be studied, and the present weight is twenty-three and one-quarter pounds [10.55 kilos.] Its shape is that of an irregular triangular pyramid; the length being $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches, the width $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the depth $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The specific gravity is 7.45, as compared with water at its greatest density. This specific gravity was taken by weighing the whole meteorite.

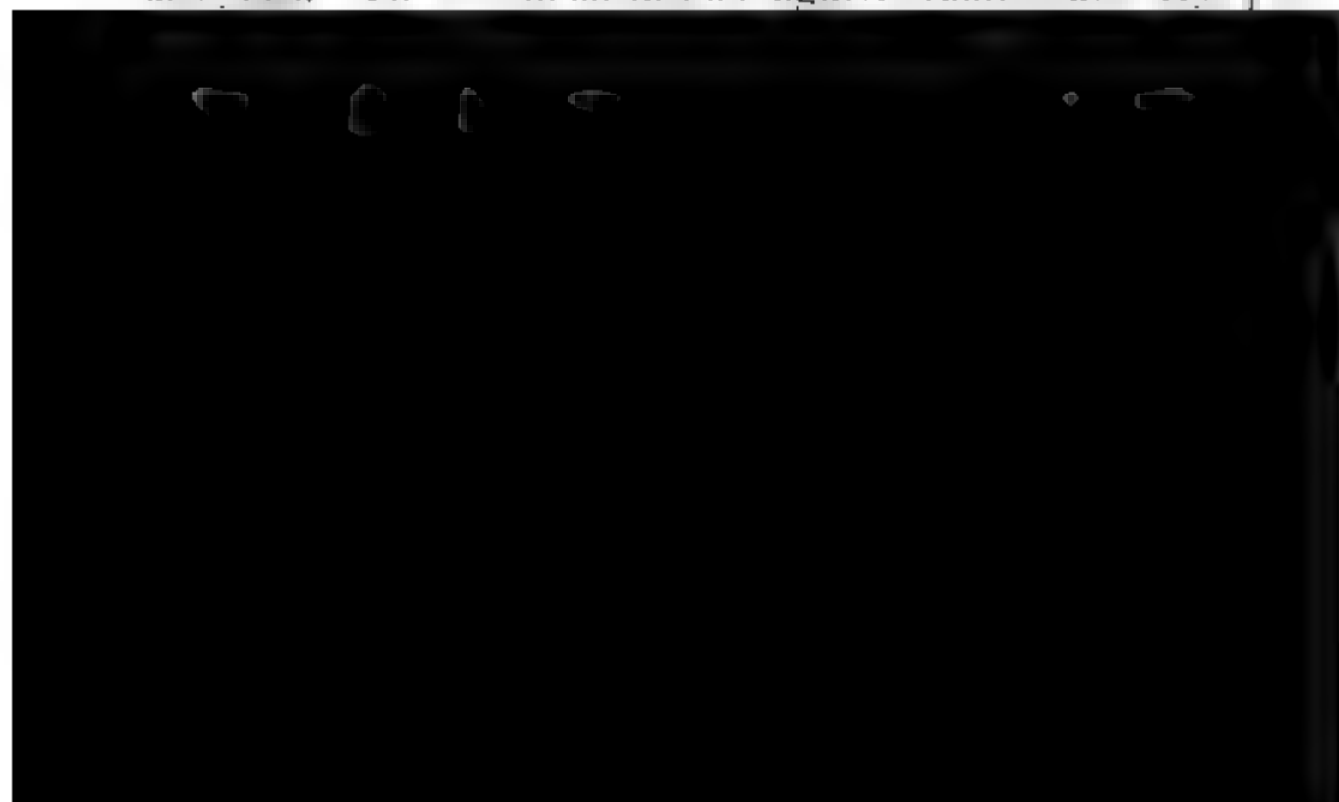
As can be seen by an examination of fig. 1, the surface of the meteorite shows numerous depressions, some of them quite large. The entire exterior is covered with a reddish black coating. This seems to be composed of scales of oxide of iron. These scales are brittle and readily attracted by the

magnet. After the specimen had been for some time exposed to the air, after being handled, numerous droplets of chloride of iron appeared on the surface. These seem to exude from minute cracks or to come from under the scales. The occurrence of chloride of iron, and its exuding in this way, is by no means uncommon in meteorites. To the fact of its presence is probably due the great tendency to scale noticed above. This iron salt gradually changes to a brown friable oxide.

The analysis shows the following composition :

| | |
|------------------|---------|
| Iron | 91.18 |
| Nickel | 7.93 |
| Cobalt | 0.39 |
| Phosphorus | 0.10 |
| Copper | a trace |
| | <hr/> |
| | 99.60 |

A test made for sulphur, on the same sample analyzed above, showed only a possible trace, but an examination was made of a sample of turnings, somewhat oxidized, and a very perceptible precipitate of barium sulphate was obtained. Scattered over the polished surface may be seen occasional long slender crystals, sometimes branching, and also several nodular masses, of a bronze color. These are without doubt troilite; [iron-nickel sulphide]. The larger particles are near the center of the polished end, as though the last to crystallize. The troilite cannot be seen till the surface has been polished with oil and emery. As this mineral is so irregularly distributed there was probably only a very small quantity in the particular piece analyzed. The Widmanstätten figures came out very per-



As the meteorite is irregular as described, and quite flat and comparatively free from cavities on one side, the question naturally arises, is it not a fragment thrown off from a much larger mass. A careful examination of the mass will render such a theory, to say the least, very probable, but whether this mass was brought here by human or geologic agencies, or whether its companions still exist in the vicinity, it is at present impossible to state. A careful search in the vicinity of the farm where it was found, fails to reveal any other specimens.

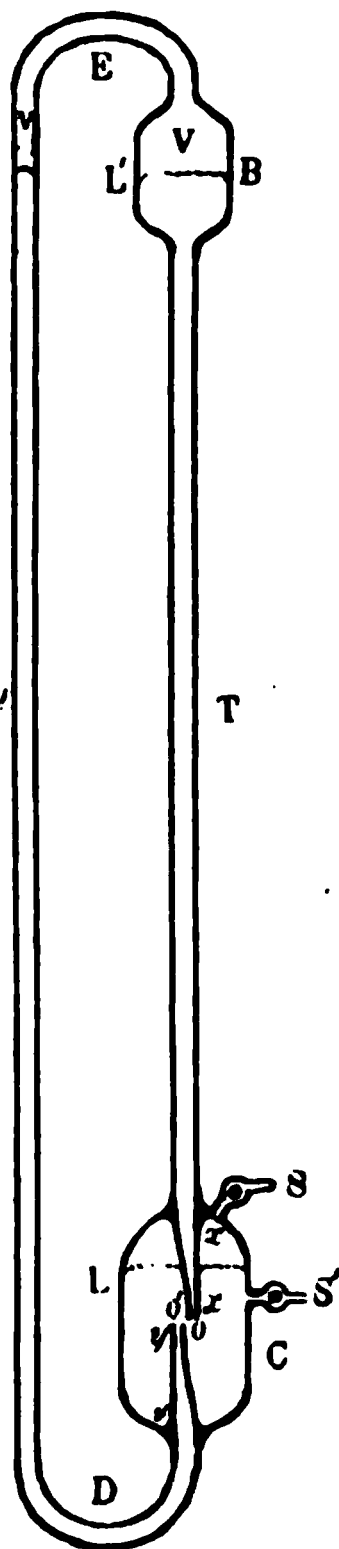
University of Kansas, July 10, 1891.

ART. XXXVII.—*Proposed Form of Mercurial Barometer ;*
by W. J. WAGGENER.

THE form of barometer to be described in this paper is shown in the accompanying figure. It should be made with all its parts of glass united into a single piece in the form of a tubular loop having two dilatations, B and C; the latter serving as cistern. S and S' are two carefully made stop-cocks connecting the cavity of C with the atmosphere. Through S, the atmospheric air is to be admitted when the instrument is in use. *xx* and *yy* are prolongations of the tubes T and T' into the cistern, their openings, *o*, *o'*, being very near together and to the center of the cistern. The capacity of the latter should be about four times that of the vacuum, Vv, so that the openings *oo'* shall always be immersed in mercury whatever the position of the barometer.

To prepare the instrument for use, the manipulations will be as follows :

1. Place it in a nearly horizontal position and fill the whole cavity with mercury.
2. Close the cocks and place the instrument in the erect position.
3. Open the cock S. Mercury flows out, the Torricellian vacuum forming at E, C remaining filled with mercury.
4. Close the cocks tightly and leave the barometer for some time, first in the erect, afterward in other positions, so that the air and moisture of the cavity may enter the vacuous space.



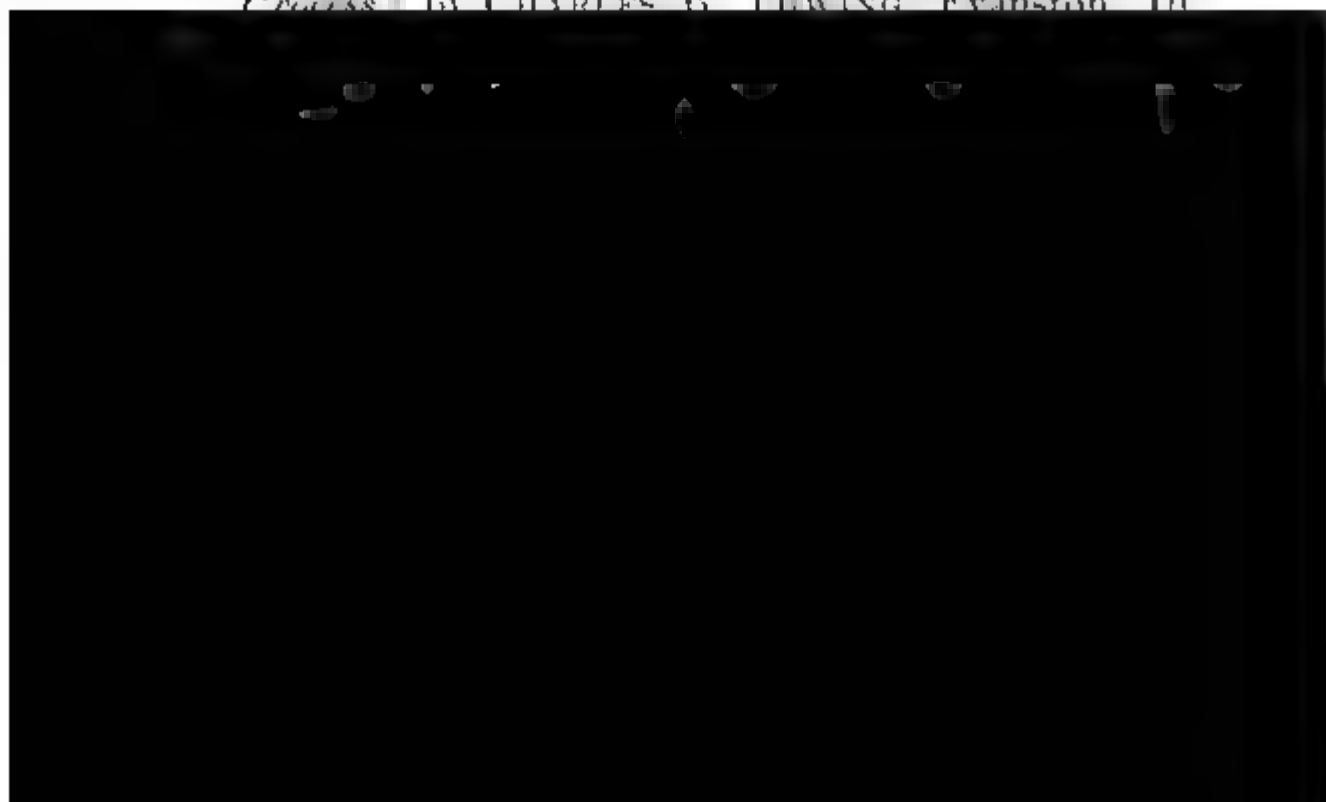
5. Regarding the instrument as in the figure, rotate it around the line of sight and in the plane of the paper, thus causing any air or vapor accumulated in the vacant space to pass into the cistern, whence it can no more pass into other parts of the cavity.
6. Repeat the foregoing manipulations in order, until the vacuum in V is as nearly perfect as possible. (Probably No. 1 need not be repeated often.)

Doubtless the apparatus would work well if made without the return tube T' and its prolongation *yy*, being sealed at D and E; but the complete loop has evident advantages, among which is the fact that it allows the tubes to be of small bore without impeding the flow of the mercury and the transfer of air-bubbles, thus greatly diminishing the amount of mercury required.

The principal features of this construction occurred to me some two years since, but my attention was taken from it by other matters until recalled by reading an account of the method proposed by G. Guglielmo,* this method being essentially the same as that involved in the foregoing manipulations; but his apparatus seems to me less perfect and convenient than that described above. He claims that this method gives better results than that of boiling the mercury, but it is evident that heat can easily be used with the loop form of tube, if desired.

Boulder, Colorado, July 29, 1891.

ART. XXXVIII.—*Color Photography by Lippmann's Process*. By CHARLES B. THWING, Evanston, Ill.



ordinary negative. The peculiarities of Lippmann's method consist, first, in the use of a plate which is transparent and free from grains; second, in the exposure of the plate with its film side resting against a reflecting surface of mercury. The interference of the reflected with the incident ray of light divides the film into a number of layers at the maxima which will correspond in their distance apart with the wave length of the incident light, and will, therefore, be able to reproduce by reflection the color which produced the layers.

Lippmann says that the plates are positive for reflected and negative for transmitted light (*négatif par transparence*). By negative he means showing the complementary color. In that one of Lippmann's negatives which I have seen and all those obtained by myself, the plates are opaque to transmitted light, showing only differences of density like an ordinary negative. The reverse side of the plate, however, shows the complementary colors, somewhat fainter than the original colors which appear on the film side of the plate.

If the plates were, in reality, negative by transmitted light, it might be possible to obtain by two steps instead of the one employed in ordinary photography, a number of copies from a single negative. The remaining method is to copy the reflected image, and, as the reflected colors are bright, this may not prove impossible. In my experiments certain modifications were introduced with a view of determining several points which are not brought out by the original experiment as reported by Lippmann. It is difficult to obtain a plate which shall be transparent and yet possess any sufficient degree of sensitive-ness. The plates I have found most satisfactory hitherto are of collodion on a thin substratum of albumen.

Following is the formula employed:

| | | | |
|-----|---|-------------------------|----------|
| (1) | { | Cadmium bromide | 25 g. |
| | | Alcohol | 280 c.c. |
| | | Hydrochloric acid | 5 c.c. |
| | | Of (1) | 5 c.c. |
| | | Ether | 40 c.c. |
| | | Pyroxyline | 2 g. |

Sensitize by adding, drop by drop, a solution of silver nitrate, 1 g., in alcohol, 10 c.c., and pour without waiting for the emulsion to ripen.

The film obtained is a pale opalescent blue, almost perfectly transparent, and requires an exposure of twenty minutes or more in direct sunlight to produce images of the green and red. It should be remarked, however, that the image is not latent but appears nearly as strong without the use of a devel-

oper as when development is resorted to. Suitable developers will doubtless reduce the time of exposure.

The plates were exposed against mercury, not, however, to the spectrum, as with Lippmann, but to light transmitted by strips of variously colored glass, one object being to determine whether the ordinary colors of objects, consisting, as they do, of a mixture of rays of several different wave lengths, would be reproduced with the same fidelity as were the pure rays of the spectrum. The composition of the light transmitted by the strips of colored glass employed as determined by the spectroscope is shown in the following table :

Red : All the red with distinct traces of orange and green.

Orange: The entire spectrum reduced in intensity.

Green: A band extending from the middle of the blue to the middle of the red.

Blue: Blue, with bands throughout the green and red.

Purple: Green and red.

The results obtained, though by no means conclusive at all points, seem to indicate: First, that mixed colors may be reproduced with some fair degree of accuracy, though some curious modifications sometimes occur. Thus, a thickening of the film between exposure and final drying, will occasionally change all the colors in the direction of the red end of the spectrum. A shortening of the distance between the thin plates, and a consequent displacement toward the violet, on the other hand, may be produced by allowing the incident light to strike the reflecting surface of mercury, at an angle other than the normal, thus shortening the distance between the maxima which mark the layers of reflecting deposit in the sensitive film. Second, that an exposure sufficiently long to give a clear

considerable work has been done in certain directions, some of which is of sufficient interest to be produced later in a separate publication. In addition several analyses of uraninite have been made, the material being in part from localities hitherto unrepresented by analytical data, and these form the subject of the present paper.

A first glance sufficed to show that the specimens were not fresh and that therefore analysis could throw no light on the ultimate composition of the mineral, but valuable data to be obtained as to the presence or absence of nitrogen and of the rare earths furnished ample excuse for the work.

| | I. Llano Co., Texas. | | II. | III. | IV. |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| | a. | b. | Marietta | Ville- | Johann- |
| | Hillebrand | Hidden and | South | neuve P. | georgen- |
| | | Mackintosh. | Carolina. | Quebec, | stadt, |
| | | | | Canada. | Saxony. |
| UO ₂ | 44.17 | 46.75 | } 83.95 ^b | 41.06 | 59.30 |
| UO ₂ | 20.89 | 19.89 | | 34.67 | 22.33 |
| ThO ₂ | 6.69 | 7.57 | 1.65 | 6.41 | } none. |
| ZrO ₂ | 0.34 | | 0.20 | ? | |
| CeO ₂ | 0.34 | | 0.19 | .40 | |
| La group. | 2.36 | | 2.05 | 1.11 | |
| Y group. | 9.46 ¹ | 11.22 ⁴ | 6.16 ⁶ | 2.57 ⁷ | |
| CaO | 0.32 | | 0.41 | .39 | 1.00 |
| PbO | 10.08 | 10.16 | 3.58 | 11.27 | 6.39 |
| H ₂ O | 1.48 | 2.54(ign.) | undet. | 1.47 | 3.17 |
| N | 0.54 | | " | 0.86 | 0.02 |
| SiO ₂ | 0.46 ² | | } 0.20 | 0.19 | 0.50 |
| Insol. | 1.47 ³ | 1.22 | | 0.13 | |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 0.14 | 0.58 | tr. | 0.10 | 0.21 |
| X | | | tr. ⁸ | 0.09 ⁹ | 5.03 ¹⁰ |
| | 98.74 | 99.93 | 98.39 | 100.72 | 97.95 |
| Sp.G. | 8.29 | 8.01 | | | 6.89 |

¹ At. wght. 111.4. ² From thorogummite. ³ Mainly fergusonite. ⁴ At. wght. 124.2. ⁵ As U₃O₈. ⁶ Atomic weight 113.6. The oxalates of this group were white, not pink like those in Ia, but the color of the ignited oxides was the same in both cases and very light. ⁷ Atomic weight 111.2 approximately. ⁸ MgO, Na₂O. ⁹ Bi₂O₃. ¹⁰ Includes: Al₂O₃ (?) 0.20, Bi₂O₃ 0.75, CuO 0.17, MnO 0.09, MgO 0.17, Na₂O 0.31, P₂O₅ 0.06, As₂O₃ 2.34, V₂O₅, WO₃, MoO₃ (?) 0.75, SO₂ 0.19=5.03.

No. Ia is a re-analysis of nivenite from Llano County, Texas, the material for which was kindly given by Mr. W. E. Hidden. It agrees in the main with the original analysis of this variety by Hidden and Mackintosh,* which is reproduced under Ib, and it confirms the presence of nitrogen, suspected but not proven by them. A small remnant of their original powdered sample gave me 0.52 per cent of nitrogen. In a the earths appear in slightly greater total amount than in b and they are more subdivided into groups and elements, which accounts fully for the difference between the atomic weights of the metals of the yttrium group of the two analyses. It was rendered certain by a second test that a group of earths whose

* This Journ., III, xxxviii, 1889, p. 481.

sulphates are insoluble in potassium sulphate other than those of Th, Zr, and Ce is present.* A very satisfactory turmeric paper reaction for zirconia was obtained in this analysis as also in that next following, which would go to show that the hypothetical ZrO_2 of several of my earlier analyses was probably in fact zirconia. The cause of the considerable loss shown by the analysis is not known. It may be mentioned that nivenite is more soluble than any uraninite heretofore examined by me, not even excepting cleveite. One hour sufficed for complete decomposition in very dilute sulphuric acid ($1H_2SO_4$ to $6H_2O$) at the temperature of boiling water.

No. II is from a new locality, Marietta, Greenville Co., South Carolina, and the total amount found, a few small fragments, was kindly given by Mr. W. E. Hidden for examination. It was impossible to free the least altered portions from the yellow and orange alteration products with which they were intimately commingled, therefore the analysis represents the composition of a mixture. Unfortunately also the portion in which UO_2 and N were to be estimated was lost, but it was seen that the mineral was very soluble and gave off considerable gas. From the preponderance of the yttrium group over the other rare earths the mineral is to be classed with nivenite and cleveite rather than with those varieties rich in thoria, a conclusion already foreshadowed by its ready solubility.

No. III is an analysis of uraninite from the Villeneuve mica mine, Township of Villeneuve, Ottawa County, Province of Quebec, Canada. To Mr. G. C. Hoffmann, of the Canadian Geological Survey, who first recognized and reported this occurrence,† I am indebted, for the material analyzed. It was evidently somewhat altered and was accompanied by oxidized

obtained. It is not known wherein the loss is to be sought. Like the great mass of the Bohemian mineral this showed no evidence of ever having been crystallized, and as in that also rare earths are absent, and also nitrogen except for an uncertain trace.

From the analyses of uraninite thus far made it appears that the species may be broadly divided into two groups, the one of which is characterized by the presence of rare earths, the other by their absence. With the former group nitrogen appears to be invariably associated, while in the latter it is present, if at all, only in minute quantity. Besides these chemical differences there is one of another kind, for probably all varieties of the first group occur in more or less well defined crystals, while the members of the second group are generally, if not altogether, massive and free from crystalline form. These differences suggest naturally a dissimilarity of origin and environment. Examination shows that the manner of occurrence and the association of other minerals is different and in such a way as to render an unlike immediate origin probable. All of the rare earth uraninites, with exception of the zirconiferous variety from Black Hawk, Colorado, occur as an apparently original constituent of coarse granites (chiefly pegmatitic), while the others are evidently of secondary formation, as evidenced by their presence in metalliferous veins in more or less intimate association with numerous sulphides of silver, lead, cobalt, nickel, iron, zinc, copper, etc. The Colorado variety occupies an anomalous position as regards the two groups. I prefer to regard it provisionally as a member of the second group, where its mode of occurrence and want of crystalline form as well as small percentage of nitrogen seem to place it, although its zirconia and traces of other earths would admit it to the first.

Attention is called to the above points merely to show that the chemical and physical differences of the two groups may be susceptible of more simple explanation than would appear from the face of the analyses.

Laboratory U. S. Geological Survey, Washinton, D. C., June.

ART. XL.—*The Tertiary Silicified Woods of Eastern Arkansas*; by R. ELLSWORTH CALL.

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THE occurrence of silicified wood in the sands and gravels of the Tertiary of the Lower Mississippi Valley has long been known. Aside, however, from the numerous localities mentioned by Hilgard,* nearly all of which are in the state of Mississippi, little attention has been given it. Numerous geologists have spoken of it or incidentally studied it in connection with other investigations, but hitherto no attempt has been made to recognize the species and fix their taxonomic value, if, indeed, they possess any such value. Among those who have investigated the Orange Sands and other Tertiary deposits of the Mississippi Valley and who have added to our information as to the occurrence of these fossils are Hilgard,† Penrose,‡ and Knowlton.§

The last named has made the only microscopic study of these fossils which is on record. Since his investigations are based upon material which, for the most part, was collected by the writer, it is thought that it will be useful to place on record in this form, a more detailed statement of the conditions of the occurrence of the silicified woods, their peculiarities, their structural relations and their stratigraphical position, in the hope that it may eventually prove to be of use in correlating the deposits in which they are found.

These fossil woods occur throughout the area covered by Tertiary sands and gravels in the State of Arkansas. When



arden, Onachita county; near Red Land, Cleveland county; Red Bluff, Jefferson county; at Helena, Forrest City, Wittsburg, Wynne, Harrisburg, Jonesboro, Gainesville, Boydsville, and St. Francis in the country traversed by Crowley's Ridge in the eastern part of the State. All of these localities have furnished examples of silicified wood from large logs or stumps in place and always imbedded in Tertiary sands or gravels. It is a remarkable fact that hitherto, in Arkansas, silicified woods have been seen but very rarely in the Tertiary clays. At all the localities mentioned above, except one, the wood is found only in gravels or sands, *in situ*, or in redeposited gravels and sands in the low valleys.

The geological section of the Crowley's Ridge region, to which area this paper especially refers, shows the following sequence, seen in the generalized section in St. Francis county which is characteristic for the southern portion.

Generalized Southern Section on Little Crow Creek.

A loess soil, with enough sand to render it decidedly siliceous.

This is the surface member and is usually of but little depth. Typical loess, varying in depth from thirty to ninety feet, eroding rapidly, and presenting a characteristic loess topography. This member caps the ridge even at its highest points.

A clayey, pebble-bearing, bluish or otherwise dark colored loess clay which forms the base of the typical loess deposits and probably marks the first stage in the loess deposition. This member varies somewhat in different localities, being often quite thin and is even sometimes wanting. The pebbles are most abundant in the lowermost portion.

Orange-colored gravels, irregular in thickness, rudely stratified, sometimes well assorted so that only coarse gravels, or *vice versa*, are seen; there are occasional pockets or lenses of sand derived from the underlying member. In rare instances this bed lies directly upon the clays. Silicified coniferous wood often occurs in this member.

Party-colored sands, of variable fineness, often quite irregularly stratified, sometimes overlying the pebble bed but usually occurring underneath it. The sand grains are well rounded. There are occasional masses or pockets of red, drab, white, or yellow pipe clay.

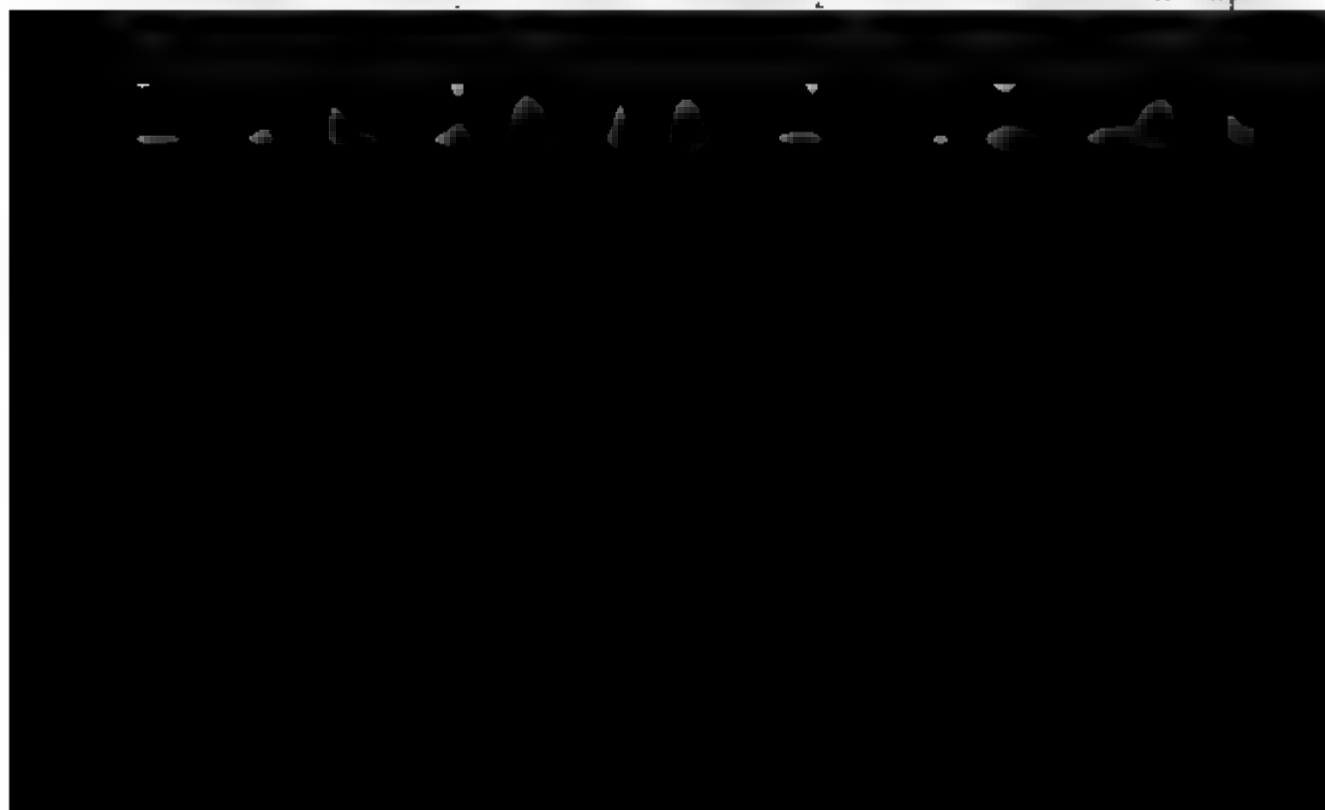
Blue, black or drab clays, horizontally stratified, with small sometimes large pieces of coniferous lignite. This member constitutes the greater portion of the body of the ridge. Along its margin it is to be seen only in the deepest ravines, or along the St. Francis and such of its small tributaries as flow from the ridge. It is often penetrated in deep wells, as at Forrest City, and underlies the whole region. The lower exposed portion is fossiliferous, the fossils are marine, and Claibornian in age. The clays are therefore Eocene Tertiary.

Slight differences in the section appear in various portions of the Ridge but are not worthy of remark in this connection. The generalized section for the northern portion of the Ridge, made at a point seventy-five miles north of St. Francis county shows the following sequence:

Generalized Northern Section near Gainesville, Greene County.

1. A humus, largely siliceous, or a soil mainly sand. At the highest hilltops this soil contains gravel or may be entirely replaced by waterworn gravel.
2. Gravel bed, commonly removed by erosion.
3. Sands of Tertiary age, false bedded, party-colored, coarse or fine, banded often with drab, red or white pipe clay, or the last may be in pockets or lenses. These sands are generally loose, but in certain localities they have metamorphosed into a very hard, glassy quartzite. The areas of metamorphism are linearly distributed over many square miles but are confined chiefly to the west side of the ridge. Silicified woods are found in this member at many localities, but none has yet been discovered in the metamorphosed portions.
4. Drab, blue and black clays of Eocene Tertiary age, horizontally stratified, occasionally fossiliferous, the fossils being chiefly the leaves of deciduous trees. These clays contain rare beds of lignite of small extent and erratic vertical distribution. Moreover, the clays are commonly gypsiferous and are further characterized by abundant small plates of muscovite in the cleavage planes. Silicified wood was seen at a single locality, on Cache River.

The absence of fossils in nearly all the members of the Arkansas Tertiary renders necessary their distinction upon



were eroded away, the portion of the trunk which had been buried therein was subjected to the action of waters containing silica in solution and the lignitic matter was replaced by silica.

The silica is, of course, all present as secondary quartz, is often massive but, also, frequently crystallized. Especially is polycrystalline quartz abundant in specimens of wood that were partially decayed when the older lignification process began. In the drusy cavities of such lignite are found large numbers of perfect and rather large quartz crystals. These are often, in some specimens always, characterized by a uniform pink or brownish color which is due to inclusions of limonite.*

Professor F. H. Knowlton, of the U. S. Geological Survey, has studied microscopically both the lignite and silicified woods found in eastern Arkansas. The results of his work may be found in vol. ii of the Arkansas Geological Survey, Reports for 1889. His studies have developed the interesting fact that the woods belong to both dicotyledonous and coniferous types. This occurrence is the first known dicotyledonous wood found in this country in rocks older than Pleistocene and is the first dicotyledonous form determined by internal structure. Therefore, examinations of both lignites and silicified woods were made and it results that the same form or forms are represented in both, a strong reason exists for genetically connecting the silicified woods with the lignites.

Unfortunately for taxonomic purposes all the forms described by Prof. Knowlton are new, but some otherwise valuable results have been reached. In the first place he finds, among the four new species studied, two forms which are clearly dicotyledonous, and two others distinctly coniferous in relationship. The species are:

Coniferous.

Supressinoxylon Arkansanum,
Supressinoxylon Calli,

Dicotyledonous.

Laurinoxylon Branneri,
Laurinoxylon Lesquereuxiana.

There was also a single additional specimen whose affinities appeared to be dicotyledonous and to belong to *Laurinoxylon*; the condition of the material would not admit of closer determination. The specimens found indicate comparatively few species but these few must have existed in great numbers. One of the most valuable and pertinent facts in this connection is the finding of the dicotyledonous *Laurinoxylon Branneri* in the lignite bed of Bolivar Creek, as lignite, deeply buried in Eocene clays in massive form.

* An especially fine example of this nature was taken from a section in Terry sands 13 miles southeast of the town of Camden on the line of the Camden and Alexandria railroad. Of the many thousands of quartz crystals which this specimen exhibits not one has been seen which is free from inclusions of limonite.

Thus far sufficient distributional facts to give a taxonomic value to the fossil woods have not been discovered. Until extensive collections throughout the whole region of the southern Tertiary have been made it will not be possible to use these forms for purposes of differentiation or of correlation. It is believed, however, that since in the Tertiary sands of Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas and Mississippi the same relations of silicified woods to lignites have been observed, it may be possible to coördinate the divisions recognized in those states by geologists and devise a system of nomenclature that will explain the relationships of the various beds to each other, though it cannot be done at present.

During the progress of the study of the region by the writer it became more and more clear that the silicified wood had some intimate relation to the pockets or beds of lignite which are scattered throughout the ridge. It was early noticed that no lignite occurs in the sands or gravels above the clays, and that no detached masses of silicified wood occur entirely in the clays. As the investigation proceeded it became a favorite hypothesis that the silicified wood was transformed lignite, and that careful microscopic study would probably prove the hypothesis to be correct. Professor Knowlton's investigations appear to verify the hypothesis.

The opinion that the silicified wood was, in some way, to be connected with the lignites of the beds underlying the sands was suggested by Hilgard* many years ago. Speaking of the occurrence of fossils in the Orange Sands he says: ". . . . The closest scrutiny I have bestowed on hundreds of extensive exposures, has failed to detect any fossil apparently peculiar to the formation as such. This might seem paradoxical enough

There can be little question, therefore, that the process of silicification has occurred, in some cases at least, since these masses were torn from the underlying beds by the waters which deposited the sands above the clays.* As ordinarily understood the process is purely a chemical one and perhaps very slow. It consists in the replacement, particle by particle, of the carbon of the lignite by silicic acid, or silicon dioxide. It is by no means essential that the organic matter be unchanged when the process begins. If the belief that this wood represents what was once lignite be a correct one, then the process of silicification can occur in the case of organic matter which has already undergone a partial change.

Where found in clays in a silicified condition, it has probably resulted from the same processes that are seen to obtain in the highly siliceous sands or gravels which overlie them. Though the impervious nature of most clays renders the percolation of silica-charged waters a matter of great difficulty such percolation certainly occurs in them. The silicified masses of wood are often far too large to have been removed from the clays and deposited in the overlying gravels by an ordinary wave or current action for they sometimes weigh tons. In the form of lignite the same masses could have been transported by currents but since very large pieces have been rarely, if ever, found far from lignite deposits even that proposition has very little weight.

The vertical distribution of the silicified woods of the Arkansas Tertiary is limited by the line of contact between the sands and clays which constitute the Arkansas series. Below this line the silicified wood never occurs, with the single exception above,† so far as observations have yet extended. Above it no

* Dr. R. A. F. Penrose, Jr. (*op cit.*, pp. 24, 26, 50, *et seq.*), has placed on record the numerous occurrences of silicified wood in the Tertiary of Texas; he finds it in both sands and clays. In his description of the Sabine River beds he says: "Silicified wood is of very frequent occurrence in these strata; sometimes occurring as small fragments; and at other times as large trunks of trees. On the Brazos River, in the northern part of Milam County, was seen a trunk one and a half feet in diameter, protruding from a clay bed. Ten feet of it were exposed, while the rest was imbedded in the clay. In many places such fragments are collected in great quantities, but it is especially plentiful in the lower part of the Fayette beds. It is generally dark brown or black inside, and weathers gray or buff color on the outside. Sometimes it occurs partly lignitized and partly silicified. It frequently shows shrinkage cracks which are filled with quartz or chalcedony, and are often lined with quartz crystals."

In this case stratification was but partial or was still in progress and since there is exposed in the face of the bluff a log which was partially lignitized and partly silicified it proves all but conclusively that, even in the Texan Tertiaries, the lignitic precedes the siliceous condition of these woods.

† In this case the stumps are still standing, the roots, also silicified, ramifying in all directions in Eocene blue clays. Less than one hundred feet east, however, the line of contact between the sand beds and the clays was disclosed in a vertical cut in a hillside. This line was at or near the elevation of the stumps. It

lignites have ever been found. The vertical range is therefore limited by the thickness of the sand and gravel bed which is commonly, in Arkansas, between fifty and eighty feet.

There is a marked difference in the vertical range of this fossil in the Tertiary of Arkansas and the Tertiary of California. In the latter State the vertical range is often many hundreds, even several thousands, of feet. Whitney says:* "It will be proper to add to some of the most important facts gathered during the investigation of the gravel deposits in regard to the mode of occurrence of the fossil plants of the Pliocene epoch. The vertical range of these has been alluded to, and it may be more distinctly stated that either fossil wood or leaves have been found at every elevation, from the lowest to the highest, where gravels occur. Even as high as Silver Mountain City, at 7,000 feet of elevation, large masses of fossil wood are found in the volcanic deposits; and in Plumas county the same occurrence has been noted on several of the highest mountains in the region, as Penman's Peak and Clermont, peaks from 7,000 to 8,000 feet high Fragments and often large masses of wood are found, both in the gravels and the associated clayey and tufaceous beds. In the gravel they frequently bear the marks of transportation from a distance, as would be expected."

In the California Tertiary the most completely silicified and best preserved specimens of wood occur in connection with deposits of a volcanic character, sometimes a rhyolitic ash.† It is suggested by Whitney that these relationships have something to do with the process of silicification. For that region Whitney believes that not only were the woods silicified after their imbedding in white pulverulent volcanic ash but "the

for there is no evidence of volcanism or any similar phenomena associated with their silicification. The silica in the eastern locality must be sought in the accompanying sand beds and was probably brought into solution by the action upon it of organic acids.

The study of the Arkansas Tertiary silicified woods appears to justify the following conclusions:

1. The silicified woods of eastern Arkansas are all of Tertiary age.

2. They are derived from the beds of Eocene clays that underlie the sands and gravels in which they commonly occur.

3. They are silicified lignite; the process of silicification has occurred either while they were still in clays or most often after they were removed and buried in the sands or gravels.

4. They possess as yet no taxonomic value in determining the relative ages of the members of the Tertiary series.

Geological Survey, Little Rock, Ark., July 15, 1891.

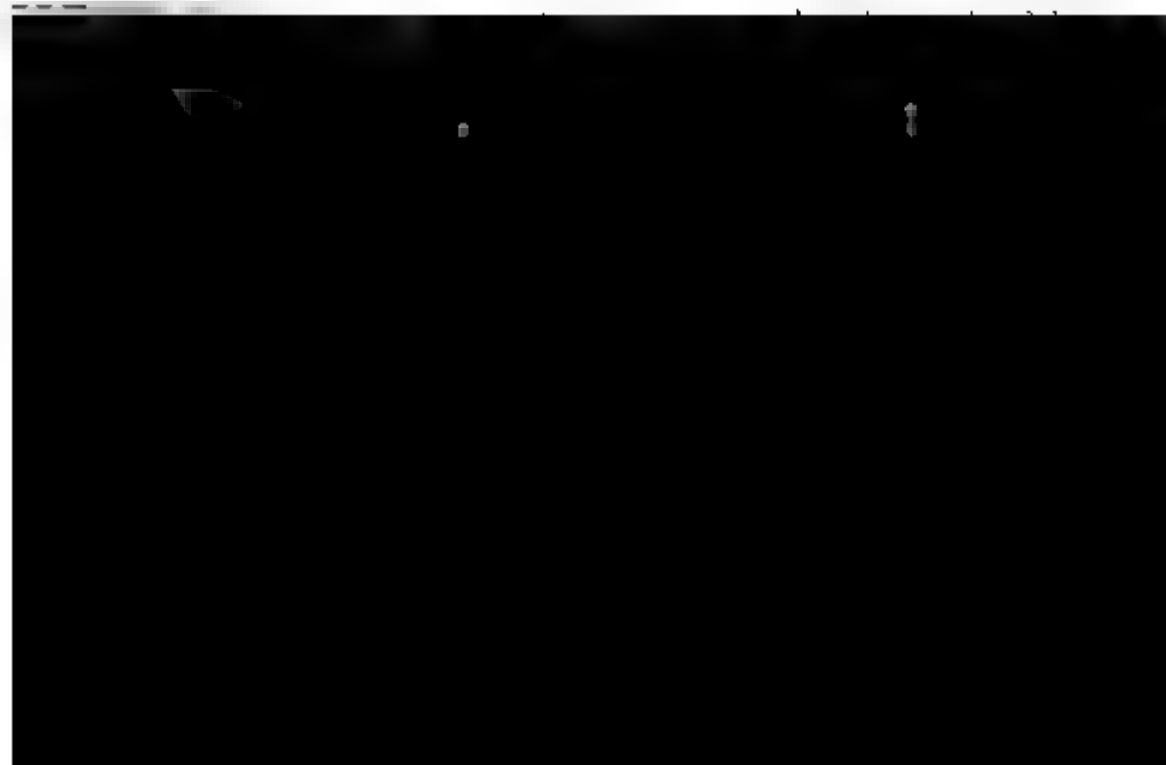
ART. XLI.—*Occurrence of Sulphur, Orpiment and Realgar in the Yellowstone National Park*; by WALTER H. WEED and LOUIS V. PIRSSON.

SULPHUR.

IN the Yellowstone National Park there are besides the well known geyser basins, many small hot spring areas and localities where fumeroles and solfataras are still active. At most of these places deposits of sulphur occur, in and around the vents from which sulphurous vapors issue. At the Highland Hot Springs and at Crater Hills these vents are quite abundant and large deposits of sulphur are found frequently having most beautiful clusters of delicate crystals. The latter locality, from which the specimens herein described were obtained, is a small group of hills whose white and steaming slopes form a prominent feature of the eastern part of Hayden Valley, the open grassy country traversed en route from the Grand Canyon of the Yellowstone to the Lake or the Firehole geysers. The hills, often called Sulphur Mountain, rise about 150 feet above the surrounding level, and are formed of fragmentary material wholly rhyolitic, decomposed and cemented by the vapors that rise at innumerable points through the hills. There are but few springs at this locality; the most prominent and most active is an ever-splashing bowl of green sulphurous waters known as the Chrome Spring. Behind this basin the slopes are light colored, chalky white, rose-pink and dull yellows

- dominant tints. Large masses of rough clinkers scattered about the slopes, resting upon some of the same cemented material or upon the smooth surface of the pulverulent silica resulting from the decomposition of the rhyolitic material by the acid waters and

parts of the slopes show the dull yellow color of sulphur, especially being further marked by many streaks and patches across. These vents are generally composed of radially fibrous sulphur, whose surface is covered by frost-like clusters of crystals. Many of the vents are closed by the sulphur and others continue to be filled with hot vapor which is copious, and is often smoken. No temperatures above 200° have been observed at any of the vents. It is in these close vents that the most beautiful crystal clusters have been obtained, such a specimen from one of these vents being quite tint, and of course quite hot; as it is surrounded with a cloud and continuous crackling, and is liable to cause many of the clusters to be broken. These crystal clusters are of a very peculiar form has been described from the same locality—Nevada.² In examining a mass of these crystals the crystalline mass is of great size, and the fact that the crystals are generally small, is a skeleton of what would otherwise be a solid mass. One that would be an interesting specimen is a large and wide consists only of narrow plates of the pyramids on each other, and is filled with other crystals and parallel material. In general the mass



the calculated angles the axes of Kokscharow* have been taken in which,

$\alpha : \bar{b} : c :: 0.81309 : 1 : 1.90339.$

| Forms. | Calculated. | Measurement. |
|---|-------------|---------------------------|
| $p \wedge p \quad 111 \wedge \bar{1}11$ | 94° 52' | 94° 51', 94° 41', 94° 40' |
| $p \wedge p \quad 111 \wedge 11\bar{1}$ | 36 40½ | 36 43, 36 44½ |
| $p \wedge m \quad 111 \wedge 110$ | 18 20½ | 18 20½, 18 22½ |
| $p \wedge e \quad 111 \wedge 101$ | 36 47 | 36 45, 36 50 |
| $p \wedge n \quad 111 \wedge 011$ | 47 26 | 47 35, 47 15 |
| $p \wedge x \quad 111 \wedge 133$ | 27 29 | 27 25, 27 27, 27 30 |
| $p \wedge q \quad 111 \wedge 131$ | 29 10½ | 29 08, 29 17 |
| $p \wedge y \quad 111 \wedge 112$ | 15 11½ | 15 13½ |
| $p \wedge s \quad 111 \wedge 113$ | 26 29½ | 26 28½, 26 30½ |
| $p \wedge t \quad 111 \wedge 115$ | 40 33½ | 40 34 |
| $p \wedge c \quad 111 \wedge 001$ | 71 39½ | 71 41½ |

In general the planes, even though minute, gave fair reflections owing to the brilliancy of their surfaces. The only exception to this was the plane $\bar{2}3 \quad 130$, from which no satisfactory reflections could be obtained. It is easily identified however since it lies in the zones $110 \wedge 1\bar{1}0$ and $001 \wedge 131$.

Though no tests were made the material is apparently of great purity. It is very homogeneous and is of a delicate sulphur-yellow.

ORPIMENT AND REALGAR.

The presence of arsenic in the hot spring waters of the Yellowstone Park, and the deposition of the hydrous arseniate of iron, scorodite, by them, has already been noticed in this Journal.* While studying the hydro-thermal phenomena of the region for the U. S. Geological Survey, under the direction of Mr. Arnold Hague, a careful search for deposits of the arsenical sulphides was rewarded by the discovery of realgar and orpiment, at the Norris Geyser Basin. This locality, though possessing few geysers worthy of comparison with those of the Firehole basins, is peculiarly interesting by reason of the newness of its geysers and the great variety of its chemical deposits. It covers an area of some six square miles situated amid the forests of the great rhyolite plateau of the Park whose gradual slopes rise on every side. The area of present activity is included between a loop of the Gibbon river and two spurs of Gibbon Hill, an eminence of rhyolite that rises above the general level of the country to the south. The multitude of

* Min. Russl., vi. p. 368, 1874.
* A. Hague, this Journal, vol. xxxiv, Sept., 1887.

vividly colored pools and equally bright tinted waterways, the white sinter flats, and the creamy rose and yellow shades of the decomposed rhyolite, the whole surrounded by a setting of dark green pines, presents a strange picture not easily forgotten.

The specimens of realgar and orpiment come from the western part of this basin, between the 100 spring plain and the Gibbon river. The deposits of siliceous sinter so abundant elsewhere in the basin are here quite scanty and form a thin coating upon rock composed of small angular fragments of pearlite, obsidian, and other forms of rhyolite—generally more or less decomposed and mixed with quartz grains, the whole compactly cemented by silica deposited by the hot spring waters. Several small outflows of clear and hot acid water issue from this cement rock, their united overflow forming a small stream which flows through a shallow gutter in the rock and joins the Gibbon river a few hundred yards beyond. Near the vents the channels are lined with an incoherent deposit of milky sulphur which frequently coats and obscures a growth of *algæ*. The gray surface of the rock shows no trace of the brilliantly colored arsenical sulphides, and it is only upon breaking this rock about the vents and prying up the plates at the margins of the channels that the realgar and orpiment are noticed. Plates of rock thus obtained show a brilliant red and yellow surface of the mixed sulphides and large pieces of rock from about the vents are penetrated and filled with deposits of the yellow orpiments, the dark red realgar, and the mixture of the two. Many of the specimens show layers of waxy dark red translucent realgar an eighth of an inch thick, covered by incoherent amorphous orpiment and alternating layers often

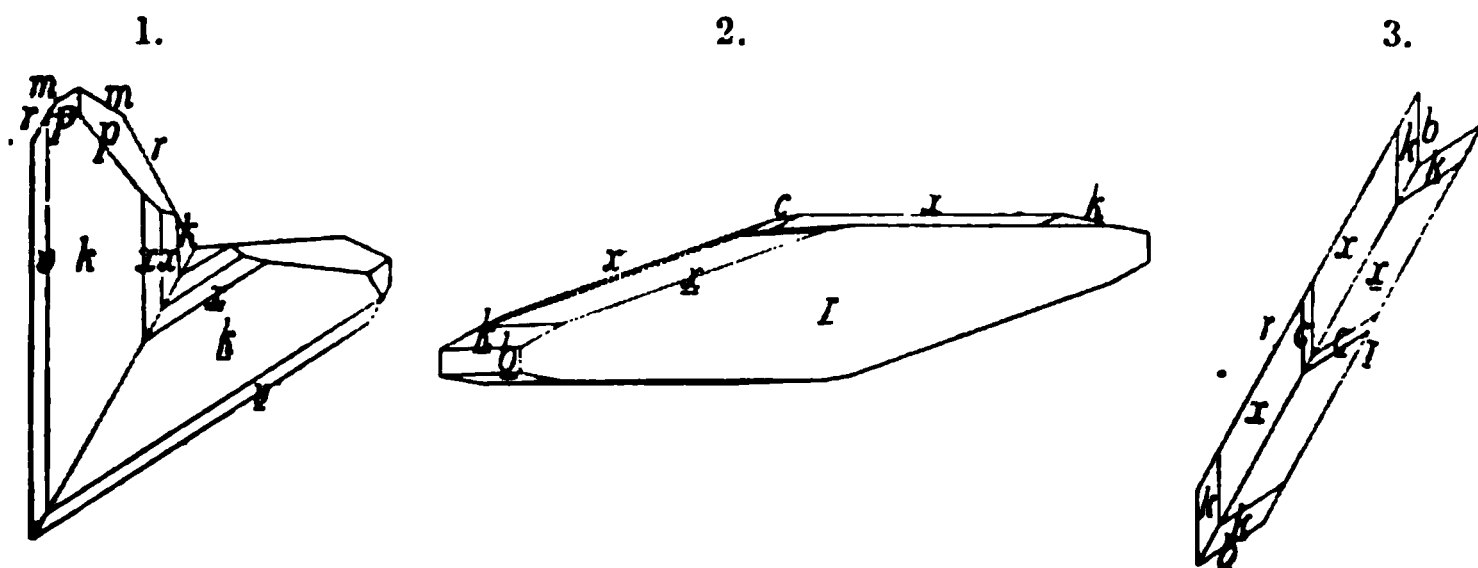
a reddish translucent sublimate. In the open tube with a good current of air volatilizes and deposits in the upper part small glittering octahedrons, which under the microscope in polarized light proved isometric (As_2O_3). Before the blowpipe on charcoal gives characteristic odors for sulphur and arsenic. Fused with carbonate of soda gives the reactions on dissolving for sulphur and arsenic.

The association of the realgar and orpiment is such that no definite statement can be made as to which forms first, but realgar is certainly the last formed upon many of the specimens. Whether it is formed through a conversion of the orpiment or as a separate deposition is uncertain, but the specimens seem to indicate that the latter is the case. Siliceous sinter is the only other mineral occurring with these arsenical sulphides.

ART. XLII.—*Mineralogical Notes*; by L. V. PIRSSON.

1. *Cerussite*.—Some specimens of cerussite, obtained through Messrs. English & Co., of New York, from the Red Cloud Mine in Yuma Co., Arizona, contain twin crystals in which the twinning plane is the uncommon form $i\bar{3}, 130$. Since, moreover, they show some unusual developments in their crystal form, it has been thought that a description of them would be of interest. The specimens are in the cabinet of Prof. George J. Brush.

The greater number of those observed have the form shown in fig. 1, which presents them in a basal projection. This



gives a much better idea of these crystals, shaped like arrow-heads, than an orthographic projection. They are of various sizes up to half an inch in length, the largest observed. They

resemble the example of this method of twinning given by Kokscharow* in the development of the brachydomes. The figure shows them in ideal symmetry; they are generally attached by the barb-shaped end; sometimes one barb or individual is free with the faces developed as in the figure; in other forms both individuals are attached and the barb-like part is wanting. They occur on the specimen seen, with cerargyrite and wulfenite. The forms observed on these crystals are:

r , $\bar{4}\bar{3}$, 130; k , $1\bar{4}$, 011; v , $3\bar{4}$, 031; α , $\frac{1}{2}\bar{4}$, 012; m , 1 , 110; p , 1 , 111.

Also the pinacoids $i\bar{2}$, 100 and $2\bar{2}$, 010, the pyramid $\frac{1}{2}$, 112 and the brachy-diagonal pyramid $2\bar{2}$, 121 have been identified in zones on the reflecting goniometer and measured with some accuracy, but they are too minutely developed to give any character to the crystals and are hence omitted in the figures. The crystals are well suited for measurement, the faces generally giving good reflections of the signal.

Fig. 2 shows a crystal from the same place with a different habit, the large $\frac{1}{2}$ brachydome α and great development of the brachy-prism r having resulted in a long spindle-shape form. Fig. 3 shows the same individual in basal projection. It occurred, attached at the end with the re-entrant angle, which in consequence was somewhat broken. Otherwise the crystal is quite perfect and in size about an inch long. The zone of brachydomes is somewhat striated, causing a rounding off toward the point. The signals of the prominent faces are, however, very distinct and give good measurements. On this crystal the forms observed were:

b , $\bar{1}\bar{1}$, 010; c , 0 , 001; r , $\bar{4}\bar{3}$, 130; k , $1\bar{4}$, 011; α , $\frac{1}{2}\bar{4}$, 012.

The following table shows the measurements of the faces of the crystals.

Fig. 1. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 2. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 3. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 4. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 5. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 6. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 7. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 8. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 9. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 10. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 11. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 12. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 13. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 14. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 15. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

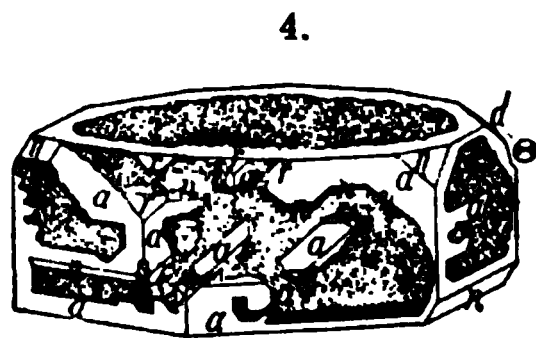
Fig. 16. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 17. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

Fig. 18. Crystal of cerargyrite, showing the faces of the brachydomes and the brachy-prism.

2. *Hematite and Cassiterite*.—Interesting specimens of hematite and cassiterite intimately associated and crystallized have been forwarded by Prof. F. A. Genth for crystallographic examination. The place from which they come is Mina del Diablo, Durango, Mexico. Among them a number of undoubted pseudomorphs of cassiterite after hematite were observed. They are too small and lusterless for the forms to be determined, but the whole grouping is precisely the same as that of hematite in the familiar "Eisenrose" habit, consisting of radiating plates. Often the central portion of these plates consists of a piece of hematite, the outer surrounding part of tin oxide. There were also seen pseudomorphs of cassiterite after some octahedral mineral, probably magnetite.

These occurrences of cassiterite and hematite have already been described by Genth and vom Rath,* but in these specimens lately examined an additional point of interest was noted. This is the presence of cellular crystals of hematite filled with cassiterite. One of these is shown in fig. 4. The forms present on this crystal are



c , 0001, 0; a , $11\bar{2}0$, $i-2$; r , $10\bar{1}1$, R; η , $01\bar{1}1$, -1; s , $02\bar{2}1$, -2; n , $22\bar{4}3$, $\frac{1}{2}-2$; d , $10\bar{1}2$, $\frac{1}{2}$; θ , $20\bar{2}1$, 2.

Those chiefly developed are the prisms and the basal pinacoids which give the crystals its habit. In reality these faces are present to a considerable degree only along the edges, the remaining parts being sunken and filled with a roughened surface of cassiterite which runs on through the crystal. The polish and luster of as much of the face as is present is, however, very fine and brilliant.

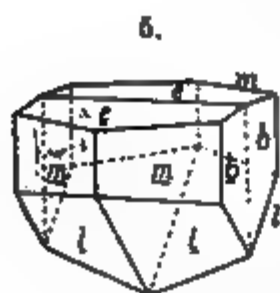
A thin section of this individual was prepared parallel to the unit prism to ascertain if the cassiterite had here also any definite orientation in regard to the hematite. None was observed. The two minerals, both appearing fresh and unaltered, were present in irregularly mingled masses. The cassiterite was formed of an intimate crystal aggregation as shown by its slight but uniform action on polarized light.

From these facts it would seem as if the two minerals had been formed simultaneously and the hematite having a greater tendency to crystallize than the cassiterite had assumed its crystal boundaries without regard to the latter.

3. *Gypsum*.—The crystals which are illustrated in fig. 5 are from Girgenti, in Sicily, and are now in the cabinet of Prof. Geo. J. Brush. They are twinned according to the usual method,

* Proceedings Am. Phil. Soc., 1887, xxiv, 23.

the twinning axis a normal to 100 and the following simple forms are present, m , I , 110; b , $\bar{1}\bar{2}$, 010; l , -1, 111; and a , $\frac{1}{2}\bar{1}$, $\bar{1}03$. Since the orthodome $\frac{1}{2}\bar{1}$, lacks only about two degrees of forming a right angle with the orthopinacoid, the two domes in twin position practically present the appearance of a basal plane and the whole crystal that of hemimorphic orthorhombic rather than of monoclinic symmetry.



This pseudo-basal plane is rough and oscillatory and the very slight salient angle cannot be detected. The crystals are of good size and very symmetrical except at the end where the twin pyramids are; they are attached by this point and are as a consequence broken and disturbed at this place.

4. *Pennine*.—The crystal form and optical properties of the violet chrome pennine or kämmererite from Texas, Penn., were originally described by Cooke* from specimens from the cabinet of Prof. Brush. At the request of Prof. E. S. Dana I have recently studied the suite of specimens in Prof. Brush's collection from this locality and thanks to the present perfection of apparatus for crystallographic investigation, I have been able to make out several forms observed by Prof. Cooke but which he was not then able to determine. The forms observed on these crystals are as follows:

O, 0001; R, $10\bar{1}1$; y, $\bar{1}$, 20 $\bar{2}5$; ϕ , $\bar{1}$, 40 $\bar{4}13$; π , $\frac{1}{2}$, 10 $\bar{1}3$; ρ , $\frac{1}{2}$, 11 $\bar{1}4$; χ , 1-2, 11 $\bar{2}2$.

The last three are new. The habit is shown in figs. 6 and 7. Fig. 6 is very similar to that given by Cooke, omitting the pyramids of the second order. As observed by him the crys-

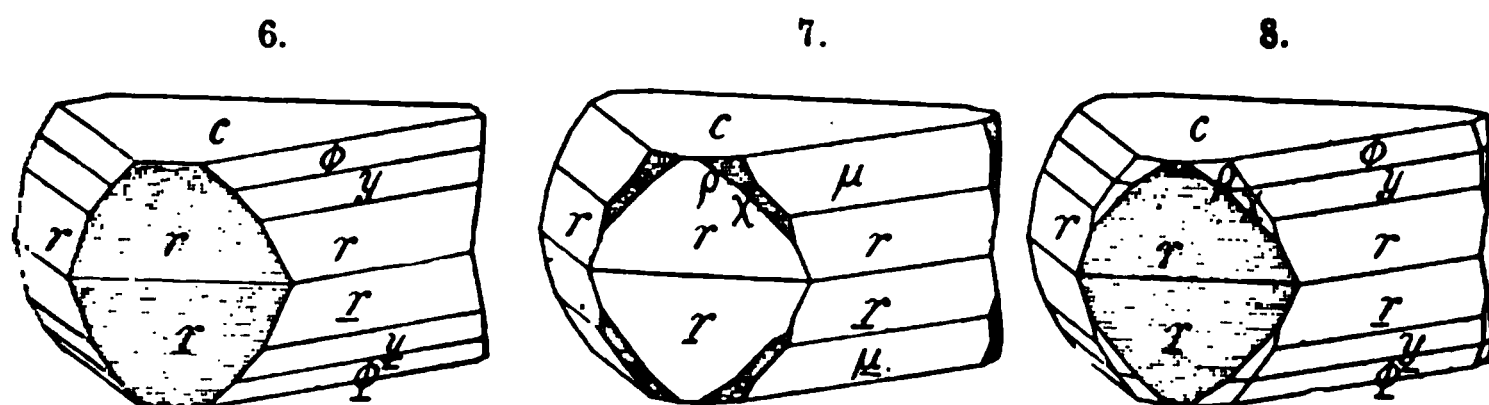
good measurements, some of which were repeated on several crystals.

The following table shows the identification of the forms by calculated and measured angles. For the calculated the elements of Cooke are taken, in which

$$a : c = 1 : 3.4951. \quad c \wedge R (0001 \wedge 10\bar{1}1) = 76^\circ 05'.$$

| | Forms. | Calc. | Meas. |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|
| $c \wedge r$ | $0001 \wedge 10\bar{1}\bar{1}$ | $103^\circ 55'$ | 104° |
| $c \wedge \phi$ | $0001 \wedge 4.0.4.13$ | 51 09 | $51^\circ 06'$ |
| $c \wedge y$ | $0001 \wedge 20\bar{2}5$ | 58 13 | 58 05 |
| $c \wedge z$ | $0001 \wedge 10\bar{1}3$ | 53 $22\frac{1}{2}$ | 53 48 |
| $c \wedge \rho$ | $0001 \wedge 11\bar{2}4$ | 60 $13\frac{1}{2}$ | 60 35 |
| $z \wedge \rho$ | $10\bar{1}3 \wedge 11\bar{2}4$ | 25 54 | 25 22 |
| $c \wedge \chi$ | $0001 \wedge 11\bar{2}2$ | 74 05 | 74 10 |

The form 1-2 ($11\bar{2}2$) was also identified by the fact that it lies in the zone between $\frac{1}{3}$ ($10\bar{1}3$) and r , R , ($10\bar{1}\bar{1}$).



5. *Mordenite*.—The author desires to correct a small error which crept into the determination of the constants of this mineral as given in this Journal, xl, page 236. These should read

$$a : \bar{b} : c :: 0.40099 : 1 : 0.42792 \text{ angle } \beta = 88^\circ 29' 46''$$

instead of the figures there given, which are

$$a : \bar{b} : c :: 0.40101 : 1 ; 0.42623 \text{ angle } \beta = 88^\circ 30' 30''.$$

Mineralogical Laboratory, Sheffield Scientific School,
New Haven, Nov., 1890.

ART. XLIII.—*Peridotite Dikes in the Portage Sandstones near Ithaca, N. Y.*; by J. F. KEMP.

IN the valuable paper on the peridotite* at Syracuse, N. Y. which appeared in this journal in August, 1887, the following statement is made and it doubtless expresses a very widespread and general impression. "This rock is interesting as being the only known instance of igneous intrusion in the unaltered and undisturbed Palæozoic strata of New York" (p. 144). Since the writer's first residence in Ithaca (1886), the occurrence of trap dikes in the vicinity has been a subject of frequent discussion in the geological laboratory of Cornell University. Conversations with alumni who were students under the instruction of Professor C. F. Hartt (1868-1878), revealed the fact that he made frequent mention of them and created the impression that they were well recognized phenomena in two of the neighboring gorges. They do not appear to have become a matter of record except in two cases. Professor O. A. Derby (now in Brazil) in a short paper in the Cornell Review (which was the student publication of that date), vol. i, p. 70, 1874, entitled "Hints to Geological Students," mentions a number of localities involving in all four dikes. Three of these are in Cascadilla Creek on the confines of the university and the fourth, said to be the best for study, is in Six-Mile Creek, two or three miles distant. Professor F. W. Simonds (now of Texas) published in 1877, a short article in the American Naturalist (vol. vi, p. 49) on the Geology of Ithaca, N. Y., and vicinity. The

northeast of Ithaca and seventy-five miles from Syracuse, but what its character is or whether it is indeed igneous is unknown to the writer.

The dike in Six Mile Creek near Ithaca was re-located in 1887, and slides were at once prepared. It proved to be a thin mass $1\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 inches wide and fills one of the numerous, parallel, north and south joints which are extremely abundant in the shaly sandstones of the region. It crosses the stream like a narrow ribbon and pinches out a few feet above the surface of the water. It has a light brown or drab color with darker spots scattered through and is provided with numerous scales of a reddish mica. It effervesced and in the slides showed a mass of alteration products with very strong suggestions of an eruptive structure, but as the material was so decomposed it was decided to be too meagre, to deserve mention. It was subsequently submitted to Messrs. G. H. Williams, Diller and Derby and the last two were strongly of the opinion that it was igneous and suggested blasting. Later discoveries make this procedure hardly necessary and prove the specimen to be undoubtedly an eruptive rock in advanced decomposition.

During a visit from Professor Derby, the past autumn, the subject of dikes was again brought up and the probable location of one in Cascadilla Creek was indicated. The point is under the discharge raceway of the reservoir forming Willow pond, just east of the entrance to the Cornell Campus. In a recent drouth it became accessible. The dike is about three feet in width and strikes north and south right across the course of the creek. It is in a recess formed by its weathering and a corresponding recess appears on the opposite side, filled however with dirt. It is covered with sand in the creek.

The rock itself is very dark green to black. Its surface is mottled by black protuberances which look very much as if they were pebbles. But they readily crumble under the fingers to a black dirt. The fresher portions have a porphyritic aspect and suggest a peridotite at once, and this is verified by the slides. In the sections the rock is seen to be highly altered. The black masses prove to be the remains of large olivine and enstatite or bronzite crystals.

The latter show very generally the striated appearance so characteristic of these pyroxenes but the silicate itself has changed to serpentine and carbonates. The crystals are 3–5^{mm} in diameter. The recognizable olivine is in smaller crystals than the pyroxene as a general thing, but appears in no inconsiderable amount. It is very probable that the larger, unstriated alteration masses were also olivine. The characteristic reddish biotite of the peridotites is distributed through the

rock, and is still quite fresh. The crystals run about 0.2–0.3^{mm} long. Their distribution indicates at times an excellent flow structure. Magnetite is abundant both in irregular grains and rude crystals. A small amount of a reddish brown mineral, of high index but not entirely isotropic, is also present. It is probably perovskite. The groundmass consists in large part of numerous small acicular crystals of highly inclined extinction which are augite. The groundmass seems originally to have been glassy. An analysis which was kindly made in the chemical laboratory at Cornell by Mr. W. H. Morrison, graduate student in chemistry yielded the following results.

| | SiO ₂ | Fe ₂ O ₃ | Al ₂ O ₃ | CaO | MgO | K ₂ O | Na ₂ O | Loss | Total |
|-----|------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|------|------|------------------|-------------------|-------|--------|
| 3/2 | 37.44 | 11.92 | 28.60 | 5.45 | 1.97 | 1.02 | 0.97 | 12.67 | 100.04 |

The analysis shows at once the advanced stage of the decomposition and yet indicates a very basic rock. Qualitative tests failed to show chromium.

The rock resembles very closely the Syracuse serpentine described by Dr. G. H. Williams in its general macroscopic appearance and in many of its microscopic characters. The large phenocrysts are the same but the olivine is less fresh than at Syracuse. The reddish mica is present in both. It has also been compared with the peridotite from Elliott Co., Ky.,* and that of Pike Co., Ark.,† and evidently belongs to the same family of rocks but as might be expected it resembles the Syracuse rock most closely.

The occurrence is interesting because it shows the further distribution of igneous rocks in a region supposed to be free from them. Ithaca is some seventy-five or eighty miles south of Syracuse and much higher in the geological scale. The local rocks are shaly sandstones of the Portage stage and are extensively seamed by a series of north and south joints and

ART. XLIV.—*A New Locality for Meteoric Iron with a Preliminary Notice of the Discovery of Diamonds in the Iron;** by A. E. FOOTE. With Plates XIV, XV.

Historical sketch of the discovery.—In the latter part of March, 1891, the mining firm of N. B. Booth & Co., of Albuquerque, New Mexico, received a letter from a prospector in Arizona informing them he had found a vein of metallic iron near Cañon Diablo, sending them at the same time a piece with the request for an assay. Sometime in April this piece was examined by a Colorado assayer who reported “76·8 per cent of iron, 1·8 per cent lead, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. silver, and a trace of gold. From its appearance we should take it to be a furnace product.”†

This result was naturally not satisfactory to the mining firm and a mass weighing forty pounds was broken into several fragments with a trip hammer. One of these was sent to the President of the Santa Fe Railroad, and another to Gen. Williamson, the land commissioner of the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad Co., in Chicago. Gen. Williamson consulted me as to the probable value of the so-called mine of “pure metallic iron,” stating on the authority of the prospector that the vein had been traced for a distance of about two miles, that it was forty yards wide in places, finally disappearing into a mountain and that a car load could be taken from the surface and shipped with but little trouble.

A glance at the peculiar pitted appearance of the surface and the remarkable crystalline structure of the fractured portion convinced me that the fragment was part of a meteoric mass, and that the stories of the immense quantity were such as usually accompany the discovery of so-called native iron mines, or even meteoric stones. As soon as possible, in June, I made a visit to the locality and found that the quantity had, as usual, been greatly exaggerated.

There were some remarkable mineralogical and geological features which, together with the character of the iron itself, would allow of a good deal of self deception in a man who wanted to sell a mine.

Description of Locality.—Nearly all of the small fragments were found at a point about ten miles southeast from Cañon

* Read before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, August 20th, 1891.

† This assay was of such a remarkable character that I took the trouble to stop at the city where it was made and ask how such extraordinary results were obtained. I was informed that the lead, silver and gold were probably the results of the materials used in making the assay.

although far from being as decisive as could be wished, yet the observations would appear to be of considerable interest and importance.

"Silver Mt." (Sec. 1, T. 49, R. 36 W.) was found to be composed of interbedded lava flows, of which at least ten flows were made out with more or less certainty. These flows dip to the northwest at an angle of from ten to sixteen degrees. No sandstone was found nearer than two miles. This has a slight dip to the northwest. On Sec. 29, T. 47, R. 37 W., a series of melaphyr flows were observed dipping at a low angle to the north or a little west of north. The angle of their greatest inclination being from 15° to 20° .

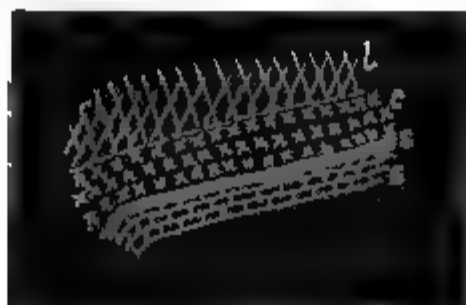
These flows are interbedded with sandstone which holds fragments of the melaphyr. A felsite dike also cuts through the beds.

Similar lava beds are found on Sec. 25, T. 47, R. 38 W., and Sec. 30, T. 47, R. 37 W., which lie at a low angle, 9° to 16° north or a little west of north; while on Sec. 1, T. 46, R. 39, the flows dip from 9° to 20° , the principal dip being to the north at an angle of 14° . Outcrops of the same old basaltic rocks occur on Sec. 35, T. 47, R. 38 W. and Sec. 8, T. 46, R. 39 W., which show a very low inclination.

The most important observations were made in Secs. 11, 13 and 14, T. 46, R. 41 W., where the sandstone was found overlaid by some of the lava flows. The sandstone is found in contact with schists presumably of the Archæan or Azoic Age. The base of the sandstone is of a conglomeritic character composed of rolled pebbles of quartz cemented by an argillaceous matrix formed from the debris of the underlying steeply inclined and contorted schists. This sandstone dips at a low

question whether the superposition of the lava on the sandstone is due to its having flowed over it, or to a reversed fault.

In connection with the above it may be pointed out that the eastern sandstone on Traverse Island, in Keweenaw Bay, was found by the Michigan Geological Survey to dip westerly at an angle of from five to fourteen degrees, and that the present writer showed that the eastern sandstone in the vicinity of Torch Lake, generally dipped from five to twenty-three degrees northwesterly toward the copper-bearing series, and that it actually passed under the lava flows.



l, lava flows; *c*, cherty bands; *s, s*, indurated sandstones.

The above observations would go to show that the lava flows of the "South Trap Range," east of Lake Gogebic do not dip at a high angle, as has been generally asserted, and further that the eastern sandstone is not horizontal, as has been generally stated, but that the two dip at a low angle, generally 5° to 20° . These observations also indicate that the eastern sandstone, and the lava flows of the South Trap Range are one formation, and are as conformable as eruptions of lava can be with a contemporaneous sedimentary deposit.

The study of the South Trap Range will be continued.

Michigan Mining School, Houghton, Mich., October 1st, 1891.

ART. XLVI.—*Geological Facts noted on Grand River, Labrador;** by AUSTIN CARY.

THE map of Labrador shows on its eastern coast one deep indentation. This body of water, comprised of Hamilton inlet and Lake Melville, is 140 miles long in all, and washes at almost every point the Archæan rock of the country.

* Prof. Leslie A. Lee in planning the Bowdoin expedition to Labrador the past summer determined to send a party up the Grand River to investigate its falls and obtain such scientific information as might be possible. This paper embodies the geological facts noted by that party. Their meagerness and lack of detail must be largely attributed to the hurried nature of the trip and the serious accidents met with.

Lake Melville receives at its head three large rivers. One of these, the Grand or Hamilton river, the largest in the peninsula, prolongs for many miles the general westerly trend of the inlet. Not only this, but the valley in which it flows is a continuation of the basin of the inlet, largely similar in character, direction and width. For sixty miles the river flows on loose sedimentary material, lying again between steep rocky walls nowhere less than six or eight miles apart. The continuity of this valley, from this point to the open sea seems evident. It is a wide trough, 200 miles long, cut into the edge of the Labrador plateau and through its outlying hills.

Seldom does the river in this region touch the rocky wall, but at a point 25 miles from the mouth it has dug into the southern wall, and a remarkably round gneissic hill some 400 feet high has been formed. Here also a half mile of fall and rapid makes a drop in the river of 70 feet. At the bottom of the section of sedimentary material thus exposed, fossiliferous Champlain clays were found, the total height of the section at this point being something over 200 feet. Toward the river mouth, it gradually drops to the level of the stream, while 40 miles farther up terraced banks of sand rise to a height of 400 or 500 feet.

At a point between 60 and 70 miles from Lake Melville the sides of the rocky valley approach till they are but about a mile apart. This is well within the Labrador plateau which in this region is tolerably level, so that from the deeply sunk river bed its edges have the appearance of high, steeply sloping ridges. Parallel, and from a half mile to three miles apart, they extend for more than 200 miles, their regularity broken only by the deep-worn valleys of the largest streams, and by occasional perpendicular cliffs. Changes in direction are

cleared out. From one to three miles wide, it contracts to about a quarter mile at its outlet, where the current passes out between perpendicular rocky bluffs, the talus from which serves in part to dam up the water.

Of the geological features observed on this river the great cañon at the head of our travel is judged the most remarkable. At the upper end of this structure the river, which above here has been flowing on the plateau level, makes an abrupt drop and flows off with many sharp turns, a succession of falls and rapids, between abrupt walls. These walls, without a single break, continue for 20 miles, during which they are very often absolutely perpendicular, and at few points so sloping that it is possible to reach the river's bed on foot. About 100 yards wide at the bottom, the gorge at its head is 150 feet deep, at its foot as much as 300. Grand in dimensions and unique in character as is this gorge, it has never been appreciated by the few men who have seen it. We suggest for it the name "Bowdoin Cañon."

At its mouth the cañon opens into the side of the river valley described above and at right angles to it. The difference in structure here is very marked. The broader valley extends both ways the same in direction and character; but while, as seems probable, the main drainage of the country flowed originally through this channel, it now holds but a small stream compared with the volume pouring out of the cañon.

Several interesting facts were noted at the fall which seem to determine its present position. The river above this point is flowing on a hard, moderately coarse syenite which is horizontally jointed. At the crown of the fall the jointing, as is shown by a very plain section, takes a gradual curve. This curve the water follows downward until having reached a very considerable angle, it takes a perpendicular drop. The walls of the basin into which the river falls, while inaccessible to close inspection, were intersected by what appeared to be two or three trap dikes; while just here also was a region of special jointing and seaming. Somewhat below the fall the rock was noted as having changed to a syenitic gneiss. Our party spent four days in travel on the plateau in the neighborhood of the fall and cañon. So far as observed the plateau surface is worn down to a pretty even general level with perpetual minor elevations and depressions. Almost its whole surface is covered with angular bowlders. One rounded hill, from 500 to 800 feet in height was ascended, by far the highest elevation in a radius of many miles. It was christened by the party Mount Hyde. Glacial markings and bowlders were found on its summit.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

I. CHEMISTRY AND PHYSICS.

1. *On the so-called "Black Sulphur" of Magnus.*—KNAPP has examined the mode of formation and the properties of the so-called "black sulphur" first described by Magnus. He finds that the best mode of preparing it is to heat suddenly a mixture of sulphur and oil; such for example as is obtained by dissolving almond oil (0.2 to 0.4 gram.) in ether, mixing the solution thoroughly with 50 grams flowers of sulphur and then evaporating the ether. If a small portion of this mixture be dropped from the point of a knife on to the bottom of a red hot platinum crucible, most of it is volatilized, but there is left a loose black residue, which after cooling is removed. By repeating the operation, the product may be increased indefinitely. Even with the greatest precautions, the yield is very small, only 0.685 gram having been obtained in this way from 100 grams of sulphur and 0.4 gram of oil, as a mean of 23 experiments. The oil treated alone in this way gave only 0.011 gram of residue. As thus obtained the "black sulphur" contains some yellow sulphur, and if the materials were not pure, also some ash. Its density varies from 2.622 to 1.843, this want of homogeneity being due to the difficulty of regulating the temperature. It is insoluble in hot and cold water, alcohol, ether, hydrochloric acid, nitric acid, aqua regia, ammonia, caustic alkalies even when concentrated, and potassium cyanide. On evaporating it with potassium hydroxide solution, it is attacked just as the hydroxide is becoming solid and dissolved to a humus-brown mass soluble in water with a deep brown color, yielding a solution in which acids give a brown precipitate. On heating the black sulphur in the air it undergoes no change, ther

cent of the sulphur is expelled at a red heat, while the residue contains 10 per cent only of sulphur mixed with 33–34 per cent of carbonaceous matter. Only 13–14 per cent of the total sulphur is dissolved by potassium dichromate and bromine. Hence the author concludes that the “black sulphur” of Magnus is not in itself a modification of sulphur, but consists of such a modification either adhering to or condensed with, a carbonization product of the oil, itself containing sulphur. The new form of sulphur does not vaporize below a temperature which is far above the boiling point of yellow sulphur. Moreover its vapor is colorless and not brown; and it evolves sulphurous oxide below a visibly red heat without combustion. Though evidently unstable in the free state, it can exist readily in contact with any surface which affords a substratum for its development. This the author finds in the blue color developed by sulphur on platinum, silver and lead sulphide, and in the blue of ultramarine.—*J. pr. Ch.*, II, xliii, 305; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 877, Aug. 1891. G. F. B.

2. *On a new form of Silicon.*—WARREN has described a new form of silicon crystallizing in well-defined oblique octahedrons, obtained by subjecting potassium silicofluoride to an intense heat in contact with impure aluminum. On separating the graphitoidal silicon thus produced, by the aid of acids, the new variety was obtained though only in small amount. The yield was increased by proceeding as follows: Pieces of aluminum the size of a walnut were thrown into a clay crucible containing a mixture of 4 parts of potassium silicofluoride, one part potassium carbonate and 2 parts potassium chloride, in a state of fusion. After the violent action was over, the crucible was heated to whiteness for about five minutes. On cooling a button was obtained containing 80 per cent of silicon. This was placed in a plumbago crucible with 12 parts of aluminum and 2 parts of tin and the whole was covered with a layer of sodium silicate. After heating to the highest attainable temperature for two hours, the crucible was cooled and the aluminum button was broken. It contained the new modification of silicon in large perfect crystals, having a full metallic luster and resembling the crystals of cast iron seen on breaking a pig of this metal. The silicon crystals are infusible and insoluble in all acids except hydrofluoric.—*Chem. News*, lxiii, 46; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 799, July, 1891. G. F. B.

3. *On a new Alkaloid from Conium maculatum.*—The new alkaloid which was observed in *Conium maculatum* by Merck of Darmstadt, has been submitted to a careful chemical examination by LADENBURG and ADAM. As received it was a white powder, easily soluble in water, alcohol, ether and benzene and forming salts with acids. The new base was purified in two ways: first by distillation and second by recrystallization from toluene. Both portions had the same melting point and both gave on analysis similar numbers: carbon 66.66 and 67.14, and hydrogen 12.33 and 12.35, the nitrogen being 9.88. This agrees

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with the formula $C_6H_{11}NO$ which is that of conhydrine. Being quite similar to this base the authors call it pseudoconhydrine. It boils at 220° – 231° , the distillate solidifying crystalline, and fusing at 100° – 102° . It is optically active, $\alpha_D = 4.30^{\circ}$. Its constitution has not been fixed.—*Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, 1671, June, 1891.

G. F. R.

4. On Iron-tetracarbonyl and Nickel-tetracarbonyl.—Mox and QUINCKE have succeeded in forming a compound of iron with carbon monoxide analogous to the compound of nickel with this gas described by them in conjunction with Langer. When very finely divided iron, obtained by reducing iron oxalate in a current of hydrogen at the lowest possible temperature, but little over 400° , and then cooled in the gas to 80° is treated with carbon monoxide, the escaping gas imparts a yellow color to the flame of a Bunsen burner into which it is passed, this result continuing even at ordinary temperature for several hours. On passing the gas through a heated glass tube at 200° to 350° a metallic mirror is formed, while at higher temperatures black flakes are produced. Upon dissolving these mirrors in acid, the solutions gave all the known reactions of iron in remarkably brilliant colors. A solution in nitric acid, precipitated by ammonia, weighed and reduced by hydrogen gave 70.48 and 69.94 per cent of iron in the oxide in two cases, the theoretical amount being 70.00. Even under the most favorable circumstances, however, the quantity of iron obtainable in this way is very small. On treating 12 grams of finely divided iron with carbon monoxide for six weeks, only about two grams of the metal volatilized. After a time the action diminished in intensity, and it was found necessary to heat the iron in a current of hydrogen at 400° for about twenty minutes every five or six hours. When $2\frac{1}{2}$ liters of carbon monoxide passed per hour over the iron, the issuing gas contained not more than 0.01 gram of iron per liter; equivalent to one-tenth per cent of iron (G.).

BERTHELOT also has observed the formation of this iron-carbonyl compound. If finely divided iron, obtained by reducing the precipitated oxide at the lowest possible temperature or by igniting the oxalate in hydrogen, be treated at 45° with carbon monoxide, the escaping gas contains iron and burns with a brighter, sometimes whiter, flame than the monoxide itself. This flame produces spots on a porcelain surface held in it, these spots consisting of iron and its oxide. On passing the gas through a heated tube a metallic ring is deposited consisting of iron containing carbon. With concentrated hydrochloric acid, the gas gives ferrous chloride. On standing over water containing air, iron oxide is deposited. The quantity of the iron compound is very small. Berthelot has also examined nickel-tetracarbonyl and finds that it is permanent and without marked dissociation-pressure at ordinary temperatures. When preserved under water it is not decomposed if air be absent. When heated suddenly to above 60° it explodes, producing carbon and carbon dioxide besides nickel and the monoxide; according to the equation $C_4O_4Ni = (CO_2)_2 + C_2 + Ni$. It is not soluble in water, dilute acids or alkalis or acid cuprous chloride; though hydrocarbons, especially oil of turpentine dissolve it. Mixed with air or oxygen it detonates on ignition and sometimes spontaneously as when the dry gas mixed with oxygen is agitated over mercury. In presence of water, a greenish-white gelatinous precipitate is formed which contains nickel, oxygen, water and combined carbon, and which deposits carbon on heating. In the liquid state, nickel-tetracarbonyl shows similar reactions. Concentrated sulphuric acid explodes it, while its vapor when mixed with nitrogen is gradually converted by this acid into four times its volume of carbon monoxide, the nickel going into solution. Ammonia does not act at once on the pure gas, while if oxygen be present white fumes appear immediately. Hydrogen sulphide gives a black sulphide, hydrogen phosphide a black mirror-like deposit. Nitrogen dioxide when mixed with the liquid or its vapor, produces a blue cloud which gradually sinks to the bottom of the vessel; the resulting gaseous mixture containing nitrogen dioxide, carbon monoxide and a new nickel compound. The author calls attention to the analogy between carbon monoxide and the radicals contained in the so-called metallo-organic compounds.—*C. R.*, cxii, 1343; *Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xxiv, Ref. 593, July, 1891.

G. F. B.

5. *On a sensitive Reaction for Tartaric acid.*—**MOHLER** has observed that when crystals of tartaric acid are thrown on sulphuric acid of 66° B., containing one per cent of resorcinol, and the whole is heated gradually, a fine red-violet coloration is produced when the temperature approaches 125° ; complete carbonization taking place at 190° . Water destroys the color. The coloring matter could not be isolated since it was not soluble in ether, amyl alcohol, acetone, chloroform, or benzine. Using other phenols, similar colors are produced; phloroglucinol giving a red

and pyrogallol a fine violet color. Since these reactions are not given by succinic, malic, citric or benzoic acids, tartaric acid may readily be detected when mixed with any of these acids. To detect 0.01 milligram, the author evaporates the solution to be tested to dryness, one c.c. of the resorcinol solution is added, and the whole is gradually heated to about 125°. At first reddish streaks appear and then the sulphuric acid becomes colored throughout. If organic substances which char with sulphuric acid are present, the tartaric acid is removed by precipitation as lead tartrate and then tested, nitrates and nitrites should not be present.—*Bull. Soc. Chem.*, III, iv, 728; *J. Chem. Soc.*, ix, 867, July, 1891.

G. F. B.

6. *Photography of the Spectrum in natural color.*—H. W. VOGEL gives a historical account of the photography of color and an explanation of the failures to accomplish it. It appears that Zenker, in 1868, indicated the method of depositing layers of silver of suitable thickness to produce by interference of light colored photographs, a method which Lippman has lately developed. Lord Rayleigh's (1886) explanation of the colors in photographs produced by adjusting the layers of silver to wave lengths in order to produce colors by interference is a repetition of the explanation of Zenker. In the earlier processes Ag₂Cl was used in the sensitive film and the fixing of the image produced in this film, by hyposulphite of soda, destroyed by separation of fine silver particles the regular layers which were necessary to produce interference colors. Lippman uses pure bromide of silver which, under the operation of fixing, leaves the film in homogeneous, regular layers suitable for producing interference colors.—*Verhandl. d. Physik. Ges. Berlin*, 10, p. 33, 1891; *Photogr. Mittheil.*, 28, p. 7.

J. T.

7. *Discharge of Electricity through exhausted Tubes without Electrodes.*—J. J. THOMSON points out that the oscillations of

clusively by the motion of the magnets that all the tubes are closed : whenever batteries or condensers are used, open tubes are present in the field." The bearing of Professor Thomson's experiments on the aurora is extremely interesting. The most remarkable appearance was presented when the discharge passed through oxygen. In this gas the bright discharge is succeeded by a phosphorescent glow which lasts for a considerable time, sometimes for more than a minute. The spectrum of the afterglow is a continuous one, without bright lines. The only gas besides oxygen which shows the afterglow is air. The spectrum of the air glow showed bright lines. Professor Thomson is continuing his investigation.—*Phil. Mag.*, Oct., 1891, pp. 323–336. J. T.

8. *Ratio of Electromagnetic to Electrostatic units.*—J. J. THOMSON and G. T. C. SEARLE have undertaken a redetermination of the value of this ratio. A complete account of their experiments can be found in *Phil. Trans.*, Lond., 181 A., pp. 583–621, 1890. The value obtained is $c=2.9955 \cdot 10^{10}$ cm. sec.⁻¹. J. T.

9. *Expansion of Water.*—A useful table of the expansion of water from temperatures 0° to 31° is given by W. Marek.—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, No. 9, 1891, p. 171. J. T.

10. *Experiments in Aerodynamics*, by S. P. LANGLEY. 115 pp. 4to, with 10 plates. Washington, 1891 (Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge, 801).—When the investigation of a subject like that of "flying machines"—at once so stimulating to the popular imagination and yet almost an *ignis fatuus* in the view of sober minds—is made the subject of careful scientific experiment in skillful hands the results are sure to be of unusual interest and value. This is eminently true of Prof. Langley's investigations in aerodynamics which briefly demonstrate experimentally that mechanical flight under proper direction is practicable and further that the support of heavy bodies in the air, combined with very great speeds is not only possible but within the reach of mechanical means now available.

The experiments detailed in this memoir were carried on at Allegheny Observatory between 1887 and 1891. They describe in the first place the "suspended plane"—a thin brass plane a foot square weighing two pounds hung vertically by a spring from a surrounding frame and capable of receiving rapid lateral motion. Briefly expressed the important result of the experiments is to prove that the downward pressure diminishes as the velocity increases, the spring contracting as the plane is carried forward. A second instrument served to show graphically the direction of the total resultant pressure on a square inclined plane and to roughly measure its amount—this is called the "resultant pressure recorder." Still another instrument, the "plane-dropper," was used to demonstrate that a horizontal plane in lateral motion requires an increased time for its descent, and also to measure the time of fall for different planes and other related points, thus giving the soaring speeds of wind-planes

set at varying angles and making it possible to compute the work expended in their uniform horizontal flight. Thus it is proved that less work is required in the aerial motion of heavy inclined planes at higher speeds than at lower ones. In the quantitative experiments connected with this part of the subject, a "component pressure recorder" was used together with a "dynamometer-chronograph" to record the speed, the resistance to forward motion at the instant of soaring and other attendant phenomena.

Reference must be made to the memoir itself for the details of the methods and results of the experiments with the instruments, alluded to. It is interesting, however, to note the conclusion reached, that, "so far as the mere power to sustain heavy bodies in the air by mechanical flight goes, such *mechanical flight is possible with engines we now possess*, since effective steam engines have lately been built weighing less than 10 pounds to an horsepower, and the experiments show that if we multiply the small planes which have been actually used, or assume a larger plane to have approximately the properties of similar small ones, one horse power rightly applied can sustain over 200 pounds in the air at a horizontal velocity of over 20 meters per second (about 45 miles per hour) and still more at still higher velocities." The author adds further that the experiments "afford assurance that we can transport (with fuel for a considerable journey and at speeds high enough to make us independent of ordinary winds) weights many times greater than that of a man." He goes on to say (we quote the author's words) that he has "not asserted without qualification that mechanical flight is practicably possible since this involves questions as to the method of constructing the mechanism, of securing its safe ascent and descent and also of securing the indispensable condition for the economic use of the power I have shown to be at our disposal, the condition I

present edition some new analytical methods have been added, the table of atomic weights has been revised and the errors noted during its use for the past three years have been corrected.

12. *Die Fortentwicklung der elektrischen Eisenbahn-Einrichtungen*, von L. KOHLFÜRST. Vienna, 189 (A. Hartleben's Verlag).—This volume is published in the same form as those of the "Elektro-technische Bibliothek" repeatedly noticed in this Journal. It is devoted to the various applications of electricity to railroad traffic, in the telegraph, telephone, signals, etc., and gives much information on these practical subjects compressed into a small space.

II. GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY.

1. *Report of Exploration of the Glacial Lake Agassiz in Manitoba*; by WARREN UPHAM. 156 pages 8vo, with two maps and a plate of sections; forming Part E, Annual report of the Geological and Natural History Survey of Canada, vol. iv, for 1888-89.—The departure of the ice-sheet of the Glacial period is shown to have been attended with the formation of a vast lake in the basin of the Red River of the North and of Lake Winnipeg, held by the retreating ice-barrier. It exceeded in extent the combined areas of the great lakes tributary to the St. Lawrence, and had a maximum depth of about 600 feet. Seventeen shore-lines, marked by beach-ridges of gravel and sand, are found at successive levels upon the northern part of this lacustrine area which are referable to stages of the glacial lake while it outflowed southward by way of Lakes Traverse and Big Stone and the Minnesota River. At lower levels, eleven later shore-lines belong to stages of outflow northward, previous to the recession of the ice from the region crossed by the Nelson River, whereby Lake Agassiz was reduced to Lake Winnipeg. The earliest and highest beaches have a gradual ascent of about one foot to the mile northward along an explored extent of 400 miles from south to north; but in the lower beaches there is a gradual decrease of this ascent, and the latest and lowest beaches are very nearly level. It is thus known that the area of Lake Agassiz was undergoing a differential northward uplift during the time of the ice-departure, and that the uplift was nearly completed within that time. On the adjoining country of Minnesota and North Dakota eleven distinct terminal and recessional moraines indicate the maximum extension of this ice-sheet and stages of halt or re-advance interrupting its general retreat; and five of these moraines, namely, the Dovre, Fergus Falls, Leaf Hills, Itasca, and Mesabi moraines, were accumulated after Lake Agassiz began to exist in the Red River Valley.

An appendix of this report gives a tabulation of glacial striæ on the region of Lake Agassiz and the country northward to Hudson Bay and the Mackenzie; and another appendix notes altitudes determined by the Canadian Pacific railway surveys in Manitoba and westward to the Pacific.

2. *Geological Survey of Texas, 2nd Annual Report*, 1890. E. T. DUMBLE, State Geologist. 756 pp. 8vo, with maps, plates and sections. Austin, Texas, 1891.—The introductory chapter of this second Annual Report by Mr. Dumble reviews the work of the year, and the subjects of metallic and other mineral and economical resources of the State. It is followed by an account of the geology and resources of the iron ore district of East Texas, by E. T. Dumble, Wm. Kenedy, J. H. Herndon and J. B. Walker; on the geology of northwestern Texas, by W. F. Cummins; on the geology and resources of the central mineral region of Texas, by T. B. Comstock; and on the geology and mineral resources of Trans-Pecos, Texas, by W. H. von Steerwitz, with a report on the Cretaceous rocks of the region by J. A. Taff.

Mr. Cummins, in his account of the Permian—the lower division of the Red Beds,—makes them in places 5000 feet thick, and every where conformable with the Carboniferous. He divides the formation into the Wichita or Lower, consisting of sandstones; the Clear Fork beds, limestones, shales and sandstones, and some gypsum; and the Double Mountain beds, including limestones, shales and thick beds of gypsum. The overlying Triassic commences with sandstones and conglomerates, which resemble and are supposed to be the equivalent of the Shinarump conglomerate of Powell—made the beginning of the Trias by Mr. C. D. Walcott. The Permian series is not separable from the Triassic by any marked unconformability, yet it is evident, Mr. Cummins remarks, that there was not continuous sedimentation between the two.

3. *Preliminary Notice of a New Yttrium-Silicate*; by W. E. HIDDEN. (Communicated).—Associated with the huge crystals of gadolinite, with yttrialite and the other yttrium minerals, found in Llano County, Texas, two years ago, I have discovered

mula would then be $3\text{SiO}_2, 2\text{R}_2\text{O}_3$, or of a mineral quite distinct from the gadolinite and yttrialite with which it is found associated. For this silicate so remarkably rich in yttria, I propose the name of ROWLANDITE, after Professor Henry A. Rowland, whose spectrographic work on the so-called "rare-earths" is so novel and important. As opportunity offers a more extended description will be given of this very interesting new species.

4. *Anatase from the Arvon Slate Quarries, Buckingham Co., Va.*; by GEORGE H. WILLIAMS (communicated).—The rarity of American localities for anatase is a sufficient warrant for recording a recent discovery of this mineral in its original position, made by the writer during June last. In the course of a trip through central Virginia occasion was taken to visit the State quarries five miles south of Bremo Bluffs on the James River railroad in Buckingham County. The largest of these quarries, belonging to the Williams Brothers, is situated at the terminus of the short branch railroad, Arvon station. This contains the best quality of slate, but it is proportionately devoid of anything of mineralogical interest. About a mile west of this place, however, where the slate of this district was first opened in what is now known as the Robert's quarry, the cleavage is less perfect and regular, while cross joints are of frequent occurrence. These irregularities, which detract so seriously from the economic value of the slate, make this quarry more interesting than the other to the geologist and mineralogist. Here beautifully crinkled varieties of slate occur, and one regularly mottled sort is quite abundant, which in the field was surmised to contain ottrelite, but was found on more careful examination to owe its knots ("knoten") to small rhombohedrons of some carbonate which is but feebly transparent on account of the great number of inclusions, probably of carbonaceous matter, which it contains. Huge blocks of this imperfect or "bastard slate" have been thrown aside as worthless, and it was on the end of one of these, cut off very evenly at right angles to the cleavage by a cross joint, that the anatase crystals were found.

The surface presented by this joint plane was of large size and was completely covered with small quartz crystals, among which were scattered minute individuals of pyrite and the anatase. The latter was fairly abundant and closely resembles the black, metallic, steep pyramidal variety, so well known from the Tavetsch valley in Switzerland. Hardly any crystals were noticed over a millimeter in length, while most were less than this. No forms except the unit pyramid, 1 (111), and the base, 0 (001), were observed. The pyramidal faces are horizontally striated and often built up into little flights of steps by an oscillatory combination, as is so frequently the case with the Swiss crystals. The faces have a high metallic luster but are broken by growth, irregularities, and vicinal planes, which makes the reflected images multiple and the measurements unsatisfactory. The best crystal gave :

| | | |
|-------------------------|----------|-------------------------|
| (111) : (1 $\bar{1}$ 1) | 98° 7' | 97° 51' (calc. v. Kok.) |
| (111) : (001) | 111° 36' | 111° 42' |
| (111) : (11 $\bar{1}$) | 136° 20' | 136° 36' |

The smaller crystals when placed under the microscope are found to be translucent with a rather pale yellow color, metallic lustre, and high refractive index. These show parallel extinction and a uniaxial figure.

I am indebted to my friend, Prof. W. G. Brown of Washington and Lee University, for chemically examining one of the crystals, which he found to be composed largely of titanite oxide.

Baltimore, Aug., 1891.

5. *Ilvaite*; by G. CH. HOFFMANN (communicated).—Several specimens of what proved to be the rare mineral, ilvaite, were received for identification from a gentleman who described it as occurring in large irregular masses in a vein about twenty feet wide, near the head of Barclay Sound, Vancouver Island, British Columbia. Portions of the material were fairly free from foreign admixture containing only small quantities of a white translucent, cleavable calcite, this, however, was in some fragments supplemented by inclusions of altered tremolite, and in others by a brownish-yellow andradite. It had a more or less closely compacted crystalline structure. The lateral faces of crystals were not infrequently striated longitudinally, and sometimes exhibited a slight iridescent tarnish. Color, iron-black; streak, greenish-black; luster, sub-metallic, brittle; fracture, uneven. Before the blow-pipe fuses quietly at about 2.5 to a black magnetic globule. Hardness, 5.5; specific gravity, 3.85. Readily decomposed by hydrochloric acid, forming a yellow jelly.

An analysis conducted upon very carefully selected and prepared material, dried at 100° C., afforded the following results:

| | | | | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|------------------|
| SiO ₂ | Al ₂ O ₃ | Fe ₂ O ₃ | FeO | MnO | CaO | MgO | H ₂ O |
|------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|------------------|

7. *Brief notices of some recently described minerals.*—**BRANDTITE.** A hydrous arsenate of manganese and calcium, formula $\text{Ca}_2\text{MnAs}_2\text{O}_8 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, found at the Harstig mine, near Pajsberg, Sweden. It is analogous to roselite and fairfieldite in composition and closely similar to the former species in its triclinic crystals. The color is white with vitreous luster, hardness = 5–5.5 ; sp. gravity = 3.671. An analysis gave :

| As_2O_5 | P_2O_5 | MnO | CaO | PbO | FeO | MgO | Cl | H_2O | insol. |
|-------------------------|------------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|----------------------|--------------|
| 50.48 | 0.05 | 14.03 | 25.07 | 0.96 | 0.05 | 0.90 | 0.04 | 8.09 | 0.04 = 99.71 |

Named by Nordenskiöld and later described by Lindström.—*G. För. Förh.*, xiii, 123, 1891.

GANOPHYLLITE.—A hydrous silicate of alumina and manganese from the Harstig mine, Sweden. It occurs in monoclinic crystals with perfect basal cleavage. The color is brown ; hardness = 4–4.5 ; sp. grav. = 2.84. An analysis gave :

| SiO_2 | Al_2O_3 | Fe_2O_3 | MnO | CaO | MgO | PbO? | K_2O | Na_2O | H_2O |
|----------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------|------|------|------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 39.67 | 7.95 | 0.90 | 35.15 | 1.11 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 2.70 | 2.18 | 9.79 = 99.85 |

The formula calculated is $7\text{MnO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 8\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$; the author, A. Hamberg, proposes to include it among the zeolites.—*G. För. Förh.*, xii, 586, 1890.

PYROPHANITE.—A manganese titanate, MnTiO_3 , like the preceding species from the Harstig mine. It occurs in rhombohedral crystals isomorphous with hematite and ilmenite and is probably tetartohedral like the latter species. The color is deep blood-red ; hardness = 5 ; sp. grav. = 4.537. An analysis gave :

| | | | | |
|----------------------|-----------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| TiO_2 50.49 | MnO 46.92 | Fe_2O_3 1.16 | Sb_2O_3 0.48 | SiO_2 1.58 = 100.63 |
|----------------------|-----------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|

Also described by Hamberg, *ibid.*

OFFRÉTITE.—A new zeolite near phillipsite in composition, from Mt. Simionse, Monthrison, France. It occurs in white hexagonal crystals with sp. grav. = 2.13. An analysis gave :

| | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------------|----------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| SiO_2 52.47 | Al_2O_3 19.06 | CaO 2.43 | K_2O 7.72 | H_2O 18.90 = 100.58 |
|----------------------|-------------------------------|----------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|

Described by F. Gonnard, *C. R.*, cxi, 1002, 1890.

KALLITE.—A nickel ore from the Friedrich mine near Schöenstein a. d. Sieg. It occurs in massive form with a light bluish gray color. Analysis gave :

| S | Sb | As | Bi | Ni | Fe | Co |
|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|---------------|
| 14.39 | 44.94 | 2.02 | 11.76 | 26.94 | 0.27 | 0.89 = 101.21 |

This corresponds essentially to NiSbS . Described by Laspeyres, *Zs. Kryst.*, xix, 12, 1891.

SYCHNODYMITE.—A cobalt ore also described by Laspeyres (l. c., p. 17) from the Kohlenbach mine at Eiserfeld near Siegen. It occurs in isometric crystals of a dark steel-gray color. Analysis gave :

| | | | | |
|---------|----------|----------|---------|-----------------|
| S 40.33 | Cu 17.23 | Co 35.64 | Ni 5.74 | Fe 0.82 = 99.76 |
|---------|----------|----------|---------|-----------------|

This corresponds to $(\text{Co}, \text{Cu}, \text{Ni})_3\text{S}_4$, like polydymite.

UMANGITE.—A selenide of copper occurring with eucairite in the Sierra de Umango, Argentine Republic. It occurs in fine granular massive forms, with metallic luster, dark cherry-red color ; hardness = 3 ; sp. grav. = 5.620. Analysis gave :

Se 36.18 Cu 44.27 Ag 0.45 Fe 0.16

The calculated analysis is Cu_2Se_3 . Described by F. Klockmann, *Zs. Kryst.*, xix, 269, 1891.

ANTLERITE.—A basic sulphate of copper of a light green color, occurring in massive form at the Antler mine, Yucca Station, Mohave Co., Arizona. After deducting 6 to 8 p. c. gangue, the mean of two analyses gave :

| | SO_3 | CuO | ZnO | CaO | H_2O | |
|-----------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|--------|
| Sp. grav - 3.93 | 20.98 | 67.91 | 0.16 | 0.05 | 10.94 | 100.04 |

The formula suggested is $3\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$. Described by W. F. Hillebrand, *Bull. 55, U. S. G. Surv.*, p. 54, 1889.

PLUMBOFERRITE.—A mineral from the Jakobsberg mine, Nordmark, Sweden, occurring in black cleavable masses. Analysis gave :

| Fe_2O_3 | PbO | FeO | MnO | MgO | CaO |
|-------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 60.38 | 23.12 | 10.68 | 2.20 | 1.95 | 1.67 = 100 |

Described by Igelström in 1881, and again in 1891, *Zs. Kryst.*, xix, 167.

8. *Catalogue of Minerals and Synonyms*, by T. EGLESTON, 378 pp. 8vo. New York, 1891 (John Wiley & Sons). The mineral collector, perplexed by the confusing multiplicity of mineral names, will find much assistance from the present volume. It gives a very full alphabetical list of mineral synonyms with references to the names of the recognized species, under which they are arranged chronologically with the author's name. This work is expanded from a similar earlier list, which appeared as Bulletin 33, of the U. S. National Museum (noticed in this Journal, xxxviii, 494, 1889).

III. BOTANY.

1. *Some Museums and Botanical Gardens in the Equatorial Belt and the South Seas*—(Fourth paper). The *Quarterly*

along the coast of Queensland, giving opportunity for a hasty glance at the natural features, while in the second place, the waters through which one sails, are protected by the long barrier reef. These coral reefs extend from $24^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude as far as Torres Straits at the North, in latitude 10° . The distance between the irregular reef and the shore varies greatly, being in some places about one hundred miles, in others less than ten miles. For a good part of the voyage near the upper extremity of the great York peninsula, the shore is plainly in sight, while on the other side of the ship one can see the low-lying islands of the Barrier Reef. The whole distance from Brisbane to Thursday Island, 1430 miles, is under the direction of coast pilots.

The voyage at this part is almost like a sail along the banks of a wide river. The shore is frequently fringed by mangroves, while on the higher land the tropical trees are thickly crowded. For considerable distances, the steamer keeps so close to the shore, that one can discern the habit of the larger trees. At certain straits one can see distinctly even the hills of the white ants, and the forms of the lower shrubs.

It is impossible to forget, as one sails along this coast, how closely every part is connected with the discoveries of Capt. James Cook. The names of some of the headlands and bays bear witness to the arduous efforts of this intrepid navigator, and serve as the lasting memorials of the perils and adventures of Cook's "first voyage." Among these names are: Weary Bay, Cape Flattery, Cape Tribulation, Repulse Island, and so on; together with many which simply note the dates on which the places were touched during the voyage, such as Whitsunday Passage, Pentecost Island, Wednesday Island, Thursday Island. The place last named has the safest harbor in the region. It is at this point that the coast pilot relinquishes his charge to the captain.

At Thursday Island, our ship was placed in quarantine, owing to a case of supposed scarlatina. This disease had been epidemic at our port of departure, Brisbane, and a single slight case on board appeared to justify the health officer of the port in preventing any of the passengers from landing. Therefore we remained nearly a day in sight of an interesting shore, with no opportunity to visit it or receive collections from it.

The passage through Torres Straits is considered one of the most dangerous bits of navigation in the world, owing to the presence of numerous small islands and hidden reefs, with currents which are as yet not fully understood. It was at this place that the "Quetta" sank just one year before we passed the spot; her commander was in charge of our own steamer and gave us harrowing details of that disaster.

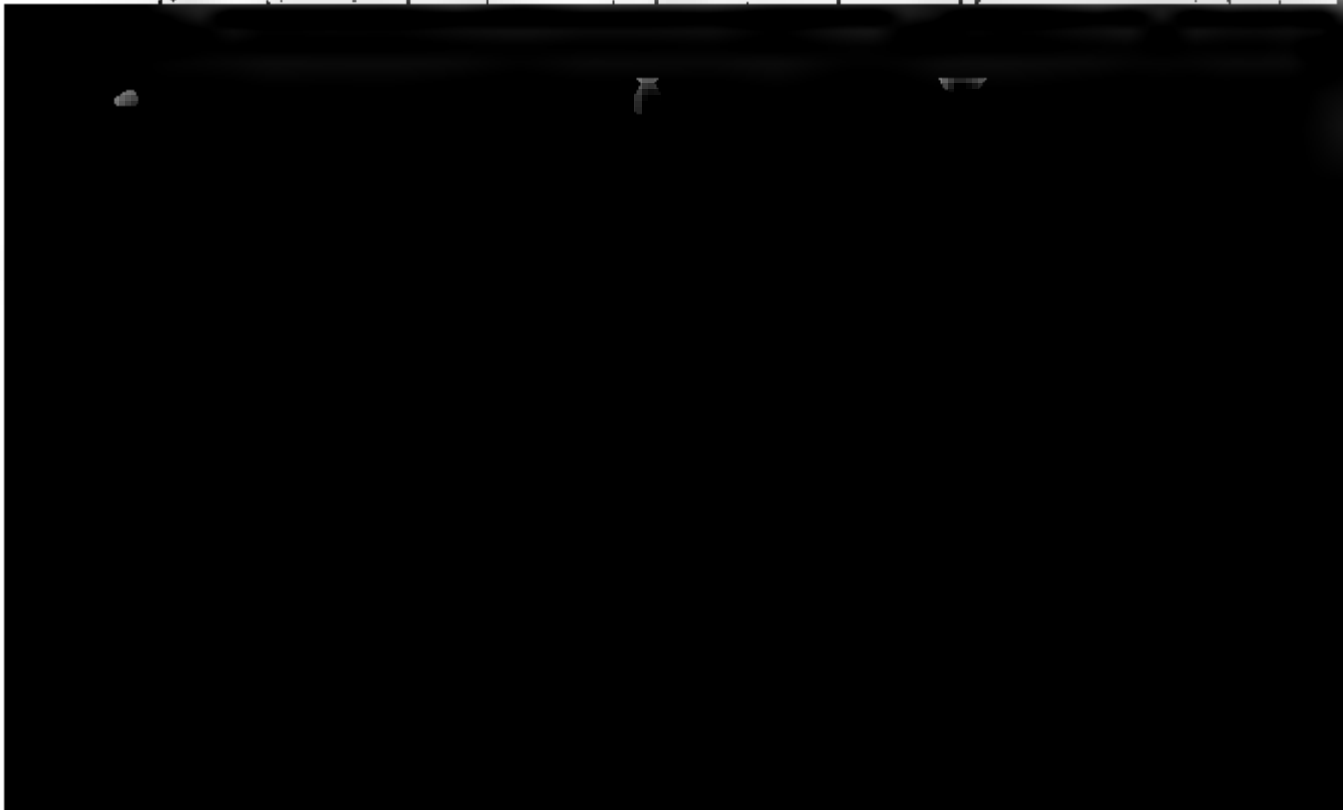
At Torres Straits we were only a few miles from the southern part of New Guinea, but we passed it at night and did not catch a sight of land. The first land sighted, but still at a considerable distance, was Timor Laut, after we had traversed the Arafura

Sea. Many of the larger islands in the lower part of the Banda and Flores seas are seen plainly, the steamer often going near enough to enable passengers to make out points of interest on land. Every facility was afforded me for securing photographs of this region. Some of the views are fairly satisfactory. Sumbawa, Lombok, Bali and Madura, are among the vivid recollections of this portion of the voyage. The volcanic character of the commanding mountains which, with their outlying flanks, make up the islands, is impressed upon every feature of the scenery. The same is true of the long island of Java which we skirted on its northern side.

At Tanjong Priok, Java, the harbor of Batavia, we were everywhere surrounded by tropical vegetation. All the land there lies very low, and has a bad reputation on account of the fevers prevalent at the coaling station. Passengers make their way, past very considerate custom-house officials, to the train in waiting, and thence over a level plain, to Batavia, a few miles away. The city of Batavia is full of interest to a naturalist, but the attractions at points farther up the railroad leave but scant time for the city.

My objective point was, of course, Buitenzorg, the locality of the famous garden. For a good many years, accounts by friends in Holland had led me to form high expectations with regard to this Javan garden. I may say that in no respect were these expectations unrealized. It is impossible, as I have said in a former paper, to compare the garden at Pérádeniya, in Ceylon, with this in Buitenzorg, although they belong to the same class. No intelligent visitor can fail to be gratified by these glimpses of well-arranged tropical vegetation: if the traveler can take into his tour both of the gardens, by all means let him do so; but let him not fail to go out of his way to see at least one of them.

Etymologically, Buitenzorg is almost the exact equivalent of



logic study, and the government has given him adequate support. In his admirable laboratories, students can find every appliance for their investigations. The *Annals of the Botanic Garden at Buitenzorg* show how well these advantages have already been improved. Dr. Treub authorizes me to state to American students of Botany, that he would be happy to communicate with any who are prepared to undertake special investigations. Arrangements are now in progress at Cambridge, by which it may be possible for one American student of Botany to be supported in Buitenzorg, for a term of one year: it is among the possibilities that a fund may be obtained by which such a subvention may be made permanent, and that American botanists may have this privilege of examining tropical plants under the most favorable conditions. It is not amiss to say in connection with this subject that the climate of Buitenzorg is healthy and agreeable, and also that the surroundings are exceedingly interesting in numerous ways.

On a contiguous mountain, the garden supports an annex. Here are cultivated the plants which are impatient of the temperature of Buitenzorg. Experiments in acclimatization can be carried on in both places. Not very far away from the the main garden, are the economic grounds, and in these are the laboratories recently established to supplement those at the main garden. The products of useful plants can here be examined chemically and physically, by the side of the plants which produce them. The suites of varieties under cultivation are very large, and constantly receive additions from other tropical regions.

It is needless to say that the region lying to the east of Buitenzorg, the hill country, with its ruined temples and with its active volcanoes, ranks among the most interesting places in the world, whether regarded from an ethnological or a geological point of view.

The voyage from Batavia to Singapore, 380 miles, takes one past the island of Banca and close by Sumatra, but the vegetation cannot be made out clearly except at one or two points.

The garden at Singapore, under the direction of Mr. Ridley, is very attractive. The plants are in good condition and everything is kept up to a high standard of efficiency. Here also there is an experimental garden filled with useful plants in great variety. Mr. Ridley has wisely left one part of his garden in its wild state. In this bit of untouched jungle, uninvaded by even a single foreign plant, except at the border, one can see many of the tropical plants in the thickest of their unrelenting struggle for existence. With creepers swaying from the lofty tropical trees, intertwined in confused tangles; with pitcher-plants at one's side and under foot; with the chatter of monkeys overhead, and the cries of the startled birds all around, one can appreciate the endless variety of organisms in favored regions in the tropics. The Malaccan garden which lies a short distance to the north of Singapore I did not have time to visit.

The last of the tropical gardens seen by me on the present journey was in French China, at the city of Saigon. Everything

here was frightfully dry after a comparatively rainless season, but strenuous efforts were being made to renovate the grounds before the arrival of the Russian Crown Prince. The grounds appeared to have been given up almost as much to an attempt to make a Zoological Garden as a Botanical one, but many of the animals had been temporarily carried to another place, and the display was very meagre. The plants were mostly young and although very interesting, possessed no features worthy of special remark. The supply of water for the garden at Saigon did not seem copious or good. Under such circumstances, it must be a discouraging task to organize a botanic garden. At the time of my visit, the directorship was vacant, and the grounds were in charge of a foreman. The gardens are here, as in other tropical ports, one of the principal attractions for the steamship passengers and for the townspeople. This fact leads the directors to make the grounds as attractive as possible from a scenic point of view, without injuring them for the purposes for which they are primarily designed.

Hong Kong has a very charming park which may also rank as a Botanic Garden. It is beautifully laid out on a very irregular hill or series of slopes. Many of the specimen trees are in excellent condition, and all of them are effectively grouped.

The small parks at Shanghai cannot in their present condition be regarded as gardens. The climate favors the growth of warm temperate plants, and these, as cultivated in the private gardens of the China coast, are said to be among the most interesting examples of Chinese horticultural work accessible to visitors. Time did not permit me to examine any of them. G. L. G.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE

1. *Leidy Memorial Museum*.—As a memorial to the late Dr. Joseph Leidy it is proposed to raise a fund to establish and endow

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[THIRD SERIES.]

ART. XLVII.—*On Percival's map of the Jura-Trias trap-belts of Central Connecticut, with observations on the upturning, or mountain-making disturbance, of the Formation; by JAMES D. DANA. With a map. Plate XVI.*

IN my paper on the features of non-volcanic igneous ejections as illustrated in the Four "Rocks" of the New Haven region at page 79 of this volume, the resemblances in general structure and system of arrangement between the West Rock trap-ridge and the other trap-ridges of the Jura-Trias in the Connecticut valley are referred to as evidence of oneness in method of origin; and also of oneness in time of origin, whether before or after the upturning of the sandstone, the great mountain-making event of the valley. This evidence—now contested though formerly considered conclusive—cannot be fully appreciated without a knowledge of the general arrangement of the trap-belts of the valley. Happily, we have an excellent map of these belts in Percival's geological chart, published in his Report of 1842 on the Geology of the State of Connecticut.*

* An octavo volume of 496 pages, with a folded geological chart of the State.

James G. Percival, born and brought up in the township of Berlin, southwest of Hartford, was early familiar with all the intricacies of that knotty region of trap-belts. He became a great scholar in all the learning of the day—an excellent mathematician, a professor of chemistry in 1844, a learned linguist and philologist, one of the best of geographers; and in all departments he was an acute and thorough student and observer. Along with this he had a wonderfully good eye for topography, and a memory which retained all the facts that ever entered it. Nearly all the money he received went for the purchase of books, and he thus acquired a very valuable library at the expense of poverty to himself. At

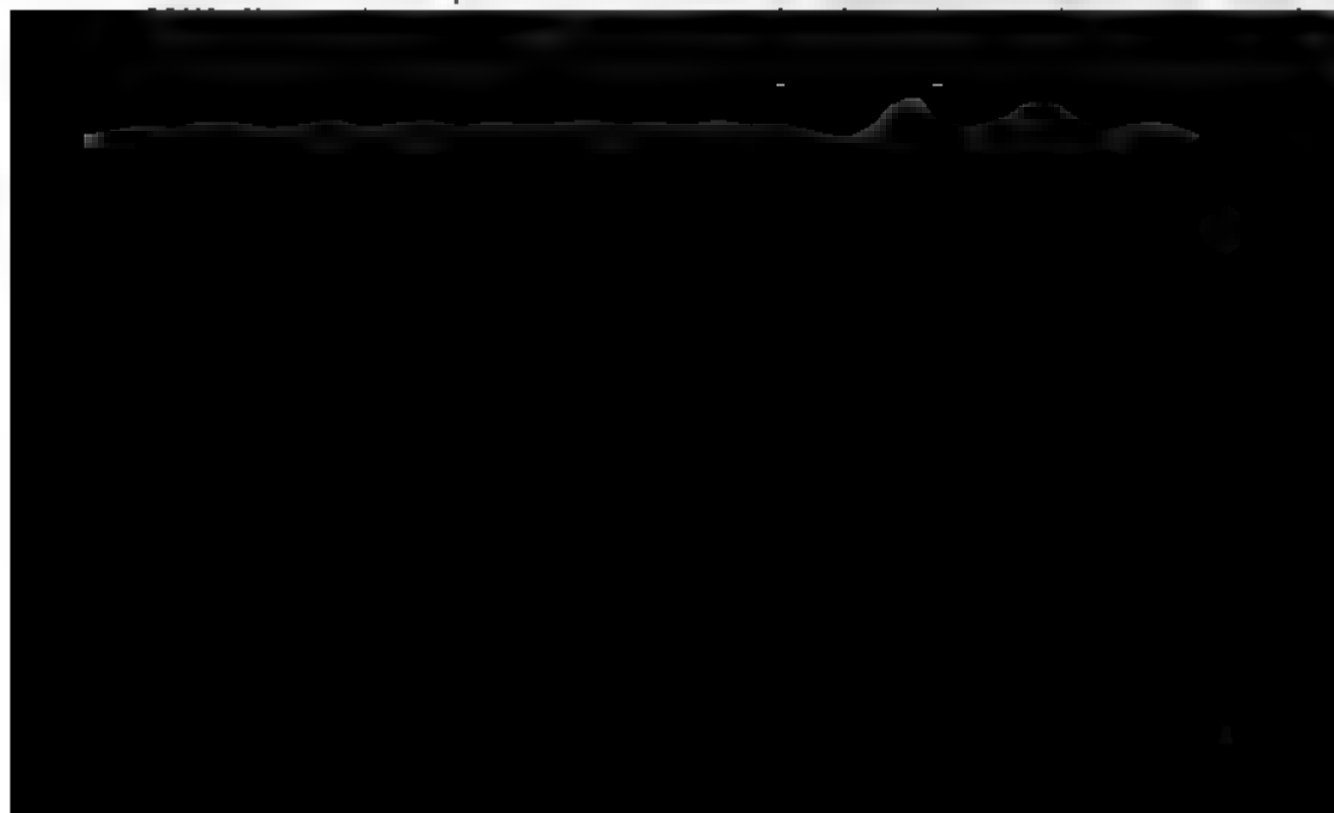
The Map: some of the Features of the area, and facts connected with its Southern termination.

As Percival's Report is little known among geologists I introduce a photo-engraved copy of the middle portion of his chart, which includes the larger part of the Jura-Trias area, along with borders of the eastern and western metamorphic regions of the State. It makes Plate XVI.

The Jura-Trias area, or that of the Connecticut valley sand stone, is the colored portion. The length from the Sound to the northern limit, 3 miles north of Hartford, is about 37½ miles. It contains all of the more complicated portion of the trap-region of Connecticut, the part omitted having only the continuation of the two western belts and another smaller on the western margin of the area.

The narrow linear areas on the map are the trap-belts. They include, according to Percival, simple trap-dikes and dikes with outflows between layers of sandstone. The breaks in the trap belt of a range generally correspond to actual intervals in the extrusions of trap. But in some cases, as in the body of Mt. Carmel, they indicate only abrupt depressions in the ridge, Percival appearing to regard them as a consequence of partial interruptions in the outflow; and in the southern end of West Rock, where the bay of sandstone just north (Plate VI evidently suggested a similar supposition.

About New Haven the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, mark successively East Rock, Mill Rock, Pine Rock and the West Rock Ridge. The long southern part of the latter is lettered W S I, and the northern W S I I. North of North Haven at 6 is Mt. Carmel. In the northern part of the town of Meriden are the "Hanging



ridge (Pond ridge, of Percival) on the west side of Saltonstall Lake. To the north of this ridge, and a little to the eastward, is another bow-shaped ridge, the Totoket; and the line of these two ridges is continued northward by other high trap-ridges, extending along the western borders of the townships of Durham and Middletown and beyond toward Hartford.

In the metamorphic region, outside of the Jura-Trias, there are two dikes, one on the east, and another on the west. They are referred by Percival rightly to the same system as those within the area. That on the west is the "Buttress Dike" in its course through Woodbridge and Orange, lettered W. 1. The eastern one commences in Branford and is continued through North Branford, where it is lettered 3 E. 1., and northeastward, as mapped by Percival, to the Massachusetts line.

The large river in the northeast corner of the map is the Connecticut. At Hartford its course becomes changed from south-by-west to south; and at Middletown it leaves the Jura-Trias area and goes off southeastward to the Sound, the waters having been forced from their former course by the barrier to the west made of belts of trap and adjoining hard sandstone—an event which took place whenever this trap region was raised above the sea-level. The valley lying to the west of the Mt. Tom trap-range contains to the north the large bend of the Farmington River; the left side of the bend received waters from the northwest, the right continues the flow northeastward to the Connecticut. South of this there are the head-waters of the Quinnipiac, and still farther south, Neck River, the stream also called Mill River.

The southern end of the area, as is shown on the map, narrows rather abruptly, owing mainly to the bending westward of the eastern side. While the width is eighteen miles in the latitude of Middletown, it is hardly two at the entrance to New Haven Bay, the southern end of the Jura-Trias estuary. The granitoid gneiss of the eastern shore and of Light House Ledge extends to within two miles of the slaty rocks (chloritic hydromica schist) of the western cape, or Savin Rock;* and as the depth off the latter cape is but a few feet and over sands for a long distance out, the actual width of the interval may not be more than a mile and a half. The outline on the east is followed closely by the easternmost trap-dike, showing, apparently, that the narrowing is a fundamental feature of the

* The granite and gneiss of the eastern Cape are probably Archæan, and the hydromica schist of the western side with the feebly crystalline limestone which occurs in it, and with other schists to the west, may be early Paleozoic.

area, and not one due to a subsequent uplifting of the coast-region and its denudation. This narrow channel at the end is the more remarkable in view of the fact that only five miles north of the outcropping granite of the shore, the sandstone—as the recent condition of the boring at the Winchester Repeating Arms Factory shows—extends to a depth below the sea-level of at least 3,100 feet. The metamorphic rocks of the hills to the west are only two miles distant, and hence that side of the trough has a mean pitch of $1 : 3\frac{1}{2}$, or about $17\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, but much larger than this, probably in the western or outer of the two miles, and smaller in the inner. The southern extremity of the Jura-Trias trough or geosyncline has, hence, something of the shape of the prow end of a boat.

These facts seem to prove that the Jura-Trias trough, or at least its lower 3,100 feet, did not extend out into the Sound but had its termination in what is now New Haven Bay.

For explanations of the lettering on Percival's map and other details, reference must be had to his Geological Report. The scale of the map is nine-tenths of an inch to five miles.

The uplifts, whether before or after the trap ejections.

Is the West Rock trap-range in which the uplifting preceded beyond question the eruption, typical for all the north-and-south trap-ranges? The form of the trap-belt on the map is strikingly like that of other trap ranges in the valley, in the little width of its outcrop, in the composite character of the belt, in its hooked extremity, in the curvature and overlapping feature of the parts, and in its gradual disappearance seventeen miles to the north just west of where another greater range—the



Again, Dr. Hovey has proved that the first trap-belt *east* of the Saltonstall belt, just across the lake, is a dike. It is shown by the hard-baked condition of the sandstone on its east side. He infers also that it was subsequent in origin to the Saltonstall belt, since the overlying sandstone contains stones of vesicular trap which were derived with little doubt, like those of the Jura-Trias boulder-conglomerate south of the northeastern extremity, from this northeastern extremity. The position of the hills of boulder-conglomerate is shown on the map (Plate XVI).

Further the bow-shaped form of Saltonstall ridge is repeated almost exactly in the larger ridge next north, the Totoket, and hence whatever is true of one as to origin is pretty certain to be true of the other. And what then of the other ridges farther north in the same line?

We note also that these bow-like shapes, in the trap, with the dip of the associated sandstone on the east side of each—as observed by Professor Davis, and later for Saltonstall ridge by Dr. Hovey—toward the center of the arc, is not the form or condition to be looked for in regions of monoclinal uplifts. The dip is nearly centroclinal not monoclinal.

The map enables the reader to observe that the facts here cited favoring ejection *after* the upturning, that is, after the great mountain-making event of the valley, are from the whole width of the southern end of the Jura-Trias area; and it is also seen that from this end northward there are suggestive facts bearing in the same direction. Still they are not complete demonstration that this is true for the northern part of the area. We have to leave the question here until other long east-and-west sections of north and-south trap ridges as complete as that of West Rock have been reported upon.

In the account of the East Rock ridge (page 98 of this volume) the separation of the Snake Rock trap-mass from that of East Rock and Indian Head, and the bow-like shape of the latter with centroclinal dip in this southeastern part, have been attributed to the caving in of the hanging wall of the eastward-dipping fissure that supplied the lava. It is worthy of consideration whether the south end of the Totoket bow and the northern of the Saltonstall line may not have had a similar origin.

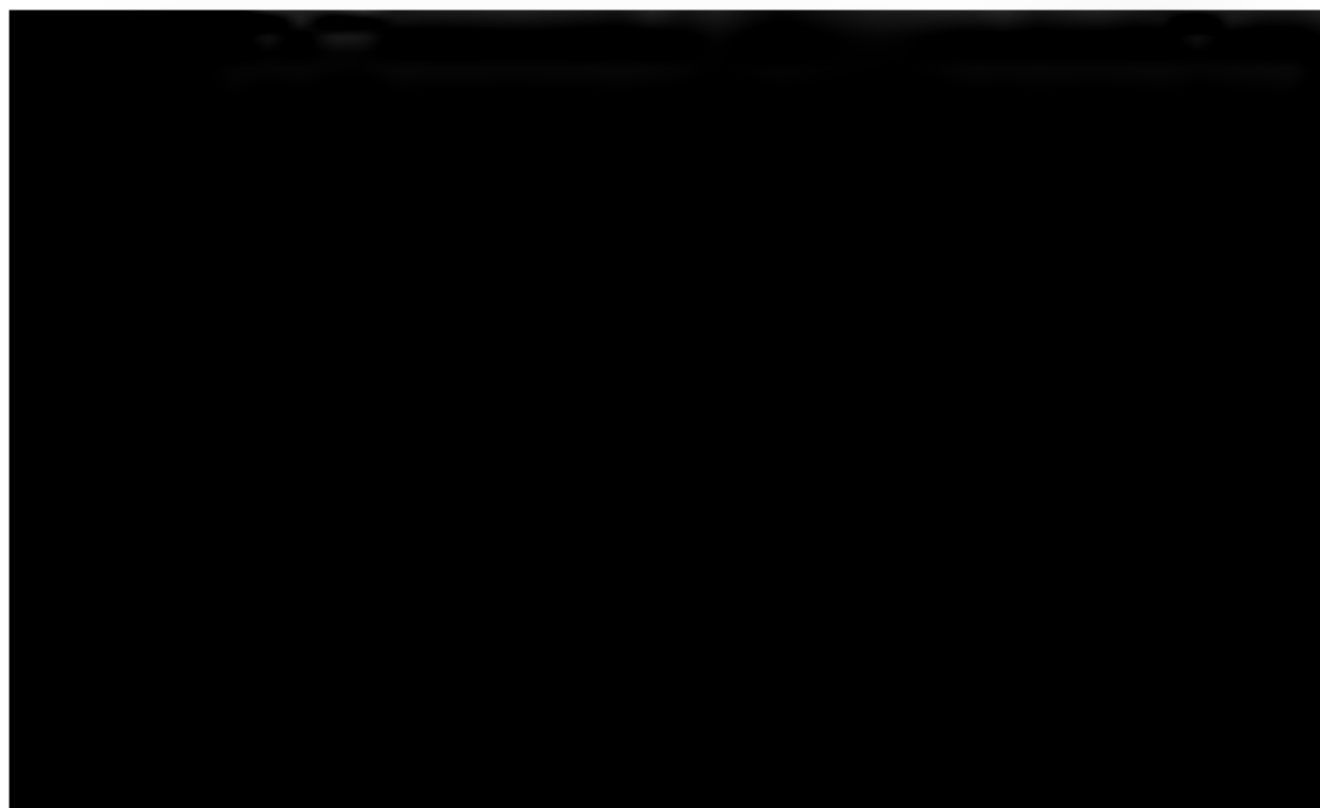
Character of the Mountain uplifts made at or near the close of the Jura-Trias period.

Like the post-Carboniferous mountain-uplifts, the parallel series made at the close of the Jura-Trias were commenced by the accumulation of sediments in gradually deepening depressions of the earth's crust, or geosynclines; but while the era of deposition in the former ended in displacements producing great flexures of the accumulated formations besides profound faults,

that of the latter ended in producing monoclinal uplifts, and also, it is believed, great faults. Further, while the post-Carboniferous uplifts of the Atlantic border include three individual mountain-ranges: (1) That of the Appalachian area from Alabama to the Catskills, 1500 miles long; (2) That extending from Newfoundland southwestward through Nova Scotia, and probably to Rhode Island, in all 1000 miles long, and that of the Gaspé-Worcester range,* the post-Jura-Trias system embraced eight or more individual ranges, of cotemporaneous origin, each of the several basins having been independent in its geosyncline and in its uplifts.

Of the two mountain-making epochs, only the latter included, among the events of each mountain-individual, extensive igneous eruptions. Of the ejections in the Connecticut Valley, those of West Rock Ridge and of at least two others in East Haven occurred, in the course, or near the close, of the mountain-making movements. If this proves to be the time of the event in general for the other trap ridges of the valley, then all were a result of, or a sequel to, the movements. But if, as Professor W. M. Davis holds, the trap of most of the ridges originally alternated in sheets with horizontal layers of sandstone and both were uplifted together into monoclines, then the ejections occurred while deposition in the geosyncline was in slow and quiet progress. The decision of the question is, therefore, one of dynamical importance. Professor Davis states that the eruptions had nothing to do with the upturning, and this is true in either case.

Fault planes concerned in the uplift.



the side of the direction of dip. In case the compression varied at different depths, diminishing downwards, a shearing force would be introduced, by which the slabs could be thrown over past the vertical."* Accordingly, his figure represents the sandstone overlying the inclined upper surfaces of the successive slabs or blocks, and as deriving in this way its eastward dip. The fault-planes, it will be understood, are not those of the fissures that supply the trap; for in his view the trap and sandstone were in alternating sheets before the upturning took place. These fault-planes are nowhere open to view, and hence the idea has not been sustained by actual comparisons. It is presented by Prof. Davis simply as an hypothesis for future consideration.

Assuming with him, as we may safely, that the dip of the fault-planes is eastward, I mentioned in my former paper as an exception to the hypothesis, a want of correspondence between the strike of the West Rock dike and other dikes near New Haven and that of the schists within a mile to the westward of West Rock, confining my statement of facts to those of the New Haven region. This objection is not quite appropriate, since the comparison is made with the direction of trap-dikes and not with the strike of the sandstone which most nearly represents that of the fault-planes. I now mention other facts bearing on the question. West of the New Haven region, along a line through Orange and Birmingham sixteen miles long, there are five changes between eastward and westward in the dip of the metamorphic schists, and in the course of them there are variations in the dip from horizontal to vertical. The last of the five is a case in which a broad and low anticlinal, consisting of coarse gneiss and mica schist with a bed of crystalline limestone, has the beds for a long distance nearly horizontal. As the mean width of the Jura-Trias area in Connecticut is twenty miles, there is therefore room for equally large variations in the dip of the crystalline schists beneath it. Again, in Berkshire county, Massachusetts, as well as to the north and south, among the metamorphic rocks of the earlier Paleozoic, or Taconic, series, the dips vary from east to west, and from zero to 90 degrees. Such facts, however exceptional, make it necessary to substitute for the expression "planes of foliation," that of planes having the mean or the prevailing, direction of the foliation; for these would be the planes of easiest cleavage in schists of great thickness.

Again, as another modification in the statement of the hypothesis, it appears necessary to make the chief foliation-planes not those of the rocks constituting the upper one, two

* This Journal, xxxii, 349, 1886. See also 7th Annual Report of the Director of the U. S. Geological Survey.

or three miles of the crust, but those below, where Archæan rocks and those subjacent to the Archæan exist. For the fractures were begun below, and in these nether rocks foliation has probably, as a consequence of Archæan pressure or tension, much greater uniformity than in those of the surface. Still the more superficial foliation would have its influence.

Again, the direction of planes of fracture, or of faulting, would have depended largely on the direction of the lateral thrust or pressure in the earth's crust producing the strain, whether normal or oblique, to the plane of easiest cleavage; an idea which, under large extension has been applied by the writer in an explanation of the origin of the courses in the feature-lines of the globe.

The production of an eastward slope in the upper surface of the faulted blocks by compression and molecular transfer, sufficient by the hypothesis to produce the dip in the sandstone, may be questioned; and also the view that the horizontal force concerned would make, in gneiss, and in other rocks equally firm, faulting along foliation-planes of the high eastward dip of 60° to 80° , instead, for the most part, of fractures oblique to these planes. To obtain a dip of 20° in the top surface of the westernmost slab or block (and the sandstone over it), the displacement a mile down would have to amount to 1800 feet; and to render the westward shove below, to this distance, possible, the compression would have to take much from the thickness of this western block on its western side, and much from the rock next west, a part from each. This would be required whether the other blocks were compressed or not. When done, it would suffice to give the same dip to the top surface of all the blocks in the series without

I pass here to an explanation of the origin of the dip in the sandstone which appears to me to harmonize best with the facts.

Daubrèe's experiments on the effects of lateral pressure, published in his "*Géologie Expérimentale*" (and briefly presented in my *Manual of Geology*), have appeared to me to sustain the idea that the great fault-planes of the earth's crust made by lateral pressure must be, as a general rule, very oblique. I have accordingly been led to suppose that the fault planes in the case of the Jury-Trias were examples, and I have referred in my *Geology* to the dip of nearly 45° in the East Rock dike as having this explanation. Two, three or more such fault-planes, coming up from the depths below and entering the geosyncline, would have among their effects: (1) the narrowing of the arc of the Connecticut valley geanticline; (2) the forcing of the sandstone to accommodate itself to the diminished width through fractures, faults and displacements; (3) the production of earth-shakings of great violence which would have produced other fractures through the 5000 feet or so of sandstone and multitudes of pieces by minor fractures. In this state of the sandstone, the shoving of it to the westward by the westward-and-upward movement of the faulting blocks, would make monoclines with eastward dips, and not flexures, because the blocks into which the formation had been divided were each too short for flexures and the piles of layers would necessarily, under the circumstances, become pushed up one over another. I stated in my former paper that slickensided surfaces of the East Haven sandstone covered blocks of all sizes, from those no larger than the hand to those constituting large sections of a quarry, and also in some places the upper and under surfaces of the layers of sandstone; and this fact accords well with the above explanation of the method of upturning.

If this view is the right one, the westward dip of the Jury-Trias sandstone in New Jersey and to the south was due to fault-planes having a reverse direction from that in the Connecticut valley, that is, a westward dip. The fundamental fact awaiting explanation is not, therefore, the opposite directions of dip in the Connecticut Valley and New Jersey sandstone, but the opposite directions of fault-planes in the subjacent rocks. The two directions of strain appear to have anticlinal relations.

The above explanations, for the reasons already stated, have no reference to the origin of the fissures for the trap ejection. If they are mostly of later date than the upturning, tension may have had much to do with their production. In any case, the old fissure, or part of them, would probably have again been used.

ART. XLVIII.—*The Detection and Determination of Potassium Spectroscopically*; by F. A. GOOCH and T. S. HART.

[Contributions from the Kent Chemical Laboratory of Yale College—X.]

BUNSEN and Kirchhoff originally determined the delicacy of the spectroscopic test for potassium by exploding in a darkened room a mixture of potassium chlorate with milk sugar, and observing the amount of finely divided chloride which it was necessary to diffuse through the given space in order to bring out unmistakably the spectrum of the metal. These investigators were able to state that the presence of no more than $\frac{1}{1000}$ of a milligram of the potassium salt is sufficient to give to the flame the characteristic spectrum of the element. By similar methods, the delicacy of the tests for lithium carbonate and sodium chlorate were shown to be a thousand times and three thousand times as delicate respectively. Practically, the detection of lithium and sodium spectroscopically is extremely easy and satisfactory, the only difficulty being that the exceeding delicacy of the sodium test, and the ubiquitousness of sodium salts often make a decision doubtful as to whether that element is present essentially in the substance under examination, or by accident. With potassium the case is different, and experience shows that, when the test is to be made for very small amounts of potassium, the simple method in vogue for developing the luminosity of lithium and sodium—the dipping of a single loop of platinum wire in the liquid or solid substance, and the placing of the loop in the Bunsen flame—fails, because, as it seems to us, so great a proportion of the material

while withdrawing it. How closely the capacity of such coils may be adjusted, and how uniformly they may be filled is shown in the figures of the accompanying record.

| | I. grm. | II. grm. | III. grm. | IV. grm. | V. grm. | VI. grm. |
|-----------------------------|------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|------------|-------------|
| Weight of filled coil. | 0.1996 | 0.2780 | 0.2794 | 0.2844 | 0.3572 | 0.3296 |
| " " | 0.1996 | 0.2780 | 0.2794 | 0.2845 | 0.3571 | 0.3296 |
| " " | 0.1996 | 0.2780 | 0.2794 | 0.2844 | 0.3572 | 0.3298 |
| " " | 0.1996 | 0.2780 | 0.2794 | 0.2845 | 0.3571 | 0.3298 |
| " " | 0.1996 | 0.2781 | 0.2794 | 0.2844 | 0.3571 | 0.3296 |
| " empty coil | 0.1986 | 0.2760 | 0.2764 | 0.2804 | 0.3521 | 0.3100 |
| " contents (mean) | 0.0010 | 0.00202 | 0.0030 | 0.00404 | 0.00504 | 0.01968 |

It is plain that we have in these coils simple means of taking up known amounts of material in solution; and by gentle heating the liquid may be evaporated and the solid material left thinly and uniformly spread, not easily detachable, and so in condition to be acted upon with effect when brought to the flame. The evaporation may be conducted with little danger of loss of material by holding the handle of the coil across the flame with the coil proper at a safe distance outside; but we have generally, and preferably, used a hot radiator over which the coils are exposed, the handles resting upon a flat asbestos ring. The burner which we have used in heating the coils before the spectroscope is of the Muencke pattern and gives a powerful flame 3 cm. wide at its base. We have generally adjusted the flame to a height of 20 cm., and have introduced the coil, after thorough drying, just within the outer mantle, on the side next the spectroscope, with the axis transverse to the slit of the spectroscope and the handle across the body of the flame. In cleaning the coils we have found it convenient to heat them in the flame of an Argand burner of the Fletcher pattern, beneath which is burned, in a small lamp, alcohol containing about a twentieth of its volume of chloroform. The products of combustion of the alcohol and chloroform are conveyed to the interior of the flame above by a glass funnel fitted by a cork to the tube of the Argand burner. This arrangement of apparatus gives a hot colorless flame through which hydrochloric acid is constantly diffused in condition to clean the wires completely and without attention. The spectroscope which we have employed is a well-made single prism instrument provided with a scale, and a movable observing telescope so that different portions of the spectrum may be viewed or cut off at will. The slit is adjustable, but for measuring its width we have been obliged to have recourse to the device of closing it upon wires of known gauge. Our work has been done in the ordinary diffused light of the laboratory, care having been taken to cut off from the room direct sunlight only; but in observing it has been our custom to shield the eye in use as completely as possible with the hand or with

a dark handkerchief, and to cover the eye not in use. We have found it desirable to use the scale of the instrument, illuminated to the lowest degree of visibility, to aid the eye in placing barely visible lines.

Upon experimenting with the apparatus described, it was found that the largest coil used was best adapted to our purpose, and, accordingly, in all the experiments made subsequently, and recorded in the following account, coils holding $\frac{1}{8}$ of a gram of water, measuring 2 mm. in diameter by 1 cm. in length, made of No. 28 wire (0.32 mm. in diameter), and wound in about thirty turns, were the ones employed. With these coils and the flame adjusted to a height of 20 cm. we have been able to recognize the presence of potassium, taken in the form of the chloride, in a coil-full of liquid containing 0.00066 gm. of the metal in 10 cm., when the slit had a width of 0.18 mm.; and containing 0.0005 gm. in the same volume of solution, when the slit was set 0.23 mm. wide. That is to say, $\frac{1}{1500}$ mg. of potassium to the coil-full produces a line distinctly visible with a slit of 0.18 mm., and $\frac{1}{1000}$ mg. with a slit of 0.23 mm., and it is evident that this practical method of producing the spectrum of potassium gives results of a delicacy approaching that indicated in the experiments of Bunsen and Kirchhoff.

These determinations were made with pure potassium chloride carefully prepared from the chlorate, but in practical analysis it almost always happens that sodium is also present. Experiments were therefore made to determine the influence of varying amounts of the latter upon the visibility of the potassium line. The dilution of the potassium chloride was adjusted nearly to the last limit of visibility, so that a coil full of the liquid should contain $\frac{1}{1500}$ mg. or $\frac{1}{1000}$ mg. of the chloride.

It is obvious from these results that a considerable amount of sodium may be present in the flame, when the sodium line is in full view in the spectrum, and the slit adjusted to nearly the lowest limit of visibility of pure potassium, without interfering with the appearance of the potassium line, but that a quantity of sodium amounting to a hundred times that of the potassium is sufficient to entirely overpower the spectrum of the potassium. The inference is plain that the proportion of sodium to potassium should not be permitted to reach 100:1 when it is desirable to bring out the full delicacy of the spectroscopic test with the sodium line in the field of view. When too great a proportion of sodium is present, its influence may be moderated by throwing the sodium line out of view, if the instrument in use possesses the necessary adjustment; otherwise, it is easy to effect a partial separation of the sodium chloride from the potassium chloride, before bringing the solution to the test, by precipitating with alcohol. Our experience shows that the delicacy of the test for potassium is not impaired materially by such treatment of the mixed chlorides. We found, for example, that 0.0070 gm. of potassium chloride mixed with 0.5 gm. of pure sodium chloride, dissolved in the least amount of water, and extracted carefully by about 7 cm.³ of absolute alcohol applied in successive portions, was so completely retained in solution and separated from sodium, that a coil-full taken from the solution diluted to 140 cm.³ gave the spectroscopic test for potassium distinctly with the slit at 0.23 mm. In this case, at least, the treatment did not diminish the delicacy of the test; for, a coil-full of the diluted solution could not have contained more than $\frac{1}{1000}$ mg. of potassium, if nothing had been lost. It was found, in like manner, that, by taking pains to evaporate the alcoholic extract, and to dissolve the residue in a drop of water, 0.0001 gm. of potassium originally present as the chloride with 0.5 gm. of sodium chloride, was easily found. By turning the observing telescope so as to cut off as completely as possible the sodium light we were able to detect potassium in four successive tests of a drop of the final solution which was just large enough to fill the coil four times, when the original amount of potassium present with 0.5 gm. of sodium chloride was 0.00001 gm. This is equivalent to detecting $\frac{1}{400}$ mg. of potassium in a drop large enough to fill the coil once. We were assured of the entire absence of potassium from the sodium chloride which we used by the fact that the similar extraction of 1 gm. of the salt by alcohol left a residue which yielded no line of potassium when examined spectroscopically. It is perhaps worth noting in passing that the coil may be

made to pick up a drop of a size only sufficient to fill it by simply touching the coil while hissing hot to the drop.

Certain experiments in which the method of manipulation which we have described was applied to the determination of potassium salts other than the chloride indicated that the test is less delicate in the case of the sulphate, and rather more delicate in the case of the carbonate. We were able to find the red line of potassium unmistakably, when only $\frac{1}{8000}$ of a milligram of potassium was introduced into the flame in the form of the carbonate.

The quantitative determination of potassium by the spectro-scope has never, so far as we know, been accomplished heretofore. Sodium appears to have been successfully estimated by Champion, Pellet and Grenier* by the use of comparison flames, produced by the aid of complex mechanism, and a spectrophotometer of original construction. Lithium has been determined more simply, Truchot† having been the first to suggest a method of manipulation which was modified by Ballmann‡ and taken up later by Bells§ apparently without knowledge of the previous work on the same line. Truchot's method consists in comparing the duration and strength of the spectral lines developed by exposure to the Bunsen flame of portions taken up in a platinum loop from the test-solution and standard solutions of different strengths. No analytical proofs of the value of the method were given and accuracy was not claimed beyond the recognition of differences of from three to four milligrams in a liter of liquid when amounts not exceeding forty milligrams per liter were compared. Ballmann discards as valueless the observation of the duration of the spectral line, advocates the dilution of the test and standard solutions

ments looking in this direction we found it best, for our purpose at least, to fall back upon Truchot's method of comparing visible lines, rather than to try to fix the vanishing point or the point of extinction of the spectral line. We chose a dilution of the standard solution which corresponds to the presence of $\frac{1}{800}$ mg. of potassium to the coil-full, and set the slit at a width of 0.23^{mm} , having found it most advantageous to work with lines for comparison bright enough to be visible without much effort. Our mode of proceeding is to dilute the test-solution until the line given by the potassium contained in a coil-full is of the same brightness as that given by the same quantity of the standard solution. From the final volume of the test-solution the quantity of potassium present in it is directly calculable; for, since any given volume of the test-solution at its final dilution contains exactly the same amount of potassium as the same volume of the standard solution, we have only to multiply the number expressing the volume in cubic centimeters of the test-solution by the weight in grams of the potassium contained in one cubic centimeter of the standard in order to obtain the weight in grams of potassium in the whole test-solution. We found it convenient to use several coils adjusted to the same capacity, and to clean, fill, dry and ignite them before the spectroscope in the manner previously described. From time to time the capacity of the coils should be readjusted, or else the final comparison tests should be made with a single coil. It is essential that the eye of the observer should be kept as nearly as possible in the same condition of sensitiveness and in the same position in making the comparisons, and to accomplish this end we found it best to hold the eye at the observing telescope during the entire interval between the exposures, to shade it carefully by the hand, or otherwise, to cover the eye not in use, to cut off all direct sunlight from the work-table (though the diffused light of the room is not objectionable), and to light the comparison scale of the spectroscope to the faintest possible visibility in order to fix exactly the position in which the line is to be sought. It is important, too, that the trials of the test and standard should come as closely together as possible in point of time. The observations of a series should be made by the same individual, the preparation and exposure of the wires being made by another. It is not possible to attain the best results in such work single handed. The dilution of the test-solution is made conveniently, and with sufficient accuracy, in 100cm. cylinders graduated to half cubic centimeters, the mixture being made thorough by passing the solution from vessel to vessel. It is often advantageous to divide a liquid which is to be diluted and to work with aliquot portions, so that it may be possible to

retrace a step without trouble in case a portion of the solution has been unwittingly diluted too much; such a mode of proceeding is, of course, necessary when the final dilution must exceed 100 cm³, unless large graduates are called into use. Excepting the cases of very concentrated solutions, no significant loss of material is occasioned by the filling of the coils, the error thus introduced being trivial in comparison with that inherent in all photometric processes. The following is the record of our experience in the comparison of solutions of pure potassium chloride, the strength of the test solution being unknown to the observer.

EXPERIMENT I.

| Volume of test-solution. | Characteristic of line compared with standard. |
|--------------------------|--|
| 20 cm ³ | stronger |
| 50 " | stronger |
| 100 " | stronger |
| 110 " | stronger |
| 120 " | stronger |
| 150 " | like |
| 200 " | weaker |
| 160 " | weaker |
| 150 " | like |

$$(150 \times 0.0001 = 0.0150)$$

Potassium found 0.0150 grm.
 " taken 0.0150 "

Limits on either side } 0.0120 "
 } 0.0180 "

EXPERIMENT II.

| Volume of test-solution. | Characteristic of line compared with standard. |
|--------------------------|--|
| 30 cm ³ | stronger |
| 60 " | stronger |
| 82 " | weaker |
| 70 " | stronger |
| 76 " | stronger |
| 78 " | stronger |
| 80 " | like |

$$(80 \times 0.0001 = 0.0080)$$

Potassium found 0.0080
 " taken 0.0080

Limits on either side } 0.0078
 } 0.0082

| EXPERIMENT III. | |
|------------------------------|--|
| Volume of the test-solution. | Characteristic of line compared with standard. |
| 25 cm ³ | stronger |
| 50 " | stronger |
| 80 " | stronger |
| 90 " | stronger |
| 95 " | stronger |
| 105 " | stronger |
| 120 " | like |
| (120 × 0.0001 = 0.0120) | |
| Potassium found | 0.0120 gm. |
| " taken | 0.0100 " |
| Error | 0.0020 " |

The result of this experiment was most surprising; for, instead of diminishing the delicacy of the test we find that the presence of a moderate amount of sodium chloride tends to increase the brilliance of the potassium line. The sodium chloride employed was a part of that prepared and tested as previously described and used in the experiments upon the qualitative determination of potassium. By no possibility could the 0.1 gm. of it taken in the experiment have contained more than 0.000001 gm. of potassium. It is evident, therefore, that the brilliance of the potassium line gained twenty per cent in strength by the influence of sodium chloride amounting to ten times the weight of the potassium present when the effect due to impurity of the salt could by no means exceed a hundredth of one per cent; that is to say, the observed effect is, at the very least, two thousand times greater than that which might have been conceivably produced by contamination of the sodium salt.

In the following experiment the effect of varying amounts of sodium chloride upon the spectrum of the potassium is shown. The sodium line was turned out of the field of view to obviate the dazzling effect of the sodium light, and a solution of potassium chloride containing 0.01 gm. of the element in 100 cm³. was examined spectroscopically after the addition of successively increasing amounts of sodium chloride, the strength of the line observed being brought into comparison with that produced by similar portions of the potassium solution containing no sodium.

| Sodium chloride in a coil-full. | Potassium in a coil-full. | Ratio of NaCl : K | Width of slit. | Characteristic of line compared with standard containing no NaCl. |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|----------------|---|
| 0.002 mg. | 0.002 mg. | 1 : 1 | 0.18 mm. | like. |
| 0.010 " | 0.002 " | 5 : 1 | 0.18 " | like. |
| 0.020 " | 0.002 " | 10 : 1 | 0.18 " | a little stronger. |
| 0.040 " | 0.003 " | 20 : 1 | 0.23 " | much stronger. |
| 0.200 " | 0.002 " | 100 : 1 | 0.23 " | very much stronger. |
| 0.400 " | 0.002 " | 200 : 1 | 0.23 " | much stronger. |
| 0.600 " | 0.002 " | 300 : 1 | 0.23 " | much stronger. |

From this it appears that the maximum strengthening effect occurs when the sodium chloride stands to the potassium in the ratio of 100:1. The apparent diminution of brilliance when the sodium is increased beyond that proportion is doubtless due to the effect of the strong light diffused through the field of view by the intensely bright sodium flame in spite of the fact that the line itself is cut off from direct vision.

The cause of the brightening effect of the sodium chloride we are inclined to attribute to the chemical action of the sodium dissociated in the flame. The effect of ammonium chloride, and of hydrochloric acid, in destroying the potassium light is well known, and is due, presumably, in very large degree to the prevention of the dissociation of the potassium chloride. The dissociated sodium should naturally by its mass-action reinforce the disintegrating action of the heat upon the molecule of potassium chloride.

It is plain that the complication introduced into the quantitative spectroscopic determination of potassium by the presence of the sodium salt in the test can be obviated if it can be brought about that both the test and the standard solution shall contain the same amount of that reagent. It is a matter of interest, therefore, to discover whether it is possible to match sodium lines of considerable intensity so closely that the quantities of that element in solutions brought into comparison shall be practically equal, and so may be relied upon to give the same strengthening effect to the potassium spectrum. The following statement is the record of an attempt in this direction. The narrower slit was found to be best adopted to the comparison of the sodium lines.

EXPERIMENT IV.

| PART I. | | | PART II. | | | PART III. | | |
|---------------------------|---|--|----------------|--|--------------------------|----------------|---|--|
| Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. | NaCl in 100 cm. ³ of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of sodium line as compared with standard. | Volume of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. | |
| m ³ . 0.23 mm. | Stronger | 0.01 grm. | 0.18 mm. | Weaker | 108 cm. ³ * | 0.23 mm. | Weaker | |
| " 0.23 " | Stronger | 0.03 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | 108 " | 0.23 " | Stronger | |
| " 0.23 " | Weaker | 0.05 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | 109 " | 0.23 " | Weaker | |
| | | 0.08 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | | 0.23 " | Stronger | |
| | | 0.09 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | | | Like | |
| | | 0.10 " | 0.18 " | Like | | | | |

EXPERIMENT V.

| PART I. | | | PART II. | | | PART III. | | |
|-----------------|----------------|---|--|----------------|--|--------------------------|----------------|---|
| test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. | NaCl in 100 cm. ³ of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of sodium line as compared with standard. | Volume of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. |
| m. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Stronger | 0.025 gm. | 0.18 mm. | Weaker | 163 cm. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Stronger |
| " | 0.23 " | Stronger | 0.050 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | 180 " | 0.23 " | Stronger |
| " | 0.23 " | Weaker | 0.085 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | 190 " | 0.23 " | Stronger |
| | | | 0.100 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | 200 " | 0.23 " | Stronger |
| | | | 0.110 " | 0.18 " | Like | 205 " | 0.23 " | Weaker ^r |
| | | | | | | 210 " | 0.23 " | Weaker |

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 205 \times 0.0001 = 0.0205 \\ 200 \times 0.0001 = 0.0200 \end{array} \right\} \text{mean} = 0.02025$$

Potassium found 0.02025 gm.
 " taken 0.02000 "

Error 0.00025 " = 1.25 per cent.

EXPERIMENT VI.

| PART I. | | | PART II. | | | PART III. | | |
|-----------------|----------------|---|--|----------------|--|--------------------------|----------------|---|
| test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. | NaCl in 100 cm. ³ of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of sodium line as compared with standard. | Volume of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. |
| m. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Stronger | 0.045 grm.† | 0.18 mm. | Weaker | 110 cm. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Stronger |
| " | 0.23 " | Stronger | 0.082 " | 0.18 " | Like | 120 " | 0.23 " | Stronger |
| " | 0.23 " | Stronger | | | | 130 " | 0.23 " | Like |
| " | 0.23 " | Like | | | | | | |

* Originally present.

$$(130 \times 0.0001 = 0.0130)$$

Potassium found 0.0130 gram.
 " taken 0.0140 "

Error 0.0010 " = 7 per cent.

† The test-solution having been accidentally over-diluted, its strength was increased by the addition of 0.0010 gm. of potassium and this amount was added in the computation below to that originally in the test-solution.

$$(109 \times 0.0001 = 0.0109)$$

Potassium found 0.0109 gm.
 " taken 0.0110 "

Error 0.0001 " = 0.9 per cent.

EXPERIMENT VII.

| PART I. | | | PART II. | | | PART III. | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|---|--|----------------|--|--------------------------|----------------|---|
| Volume of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. | NaCl in 100 cm. ³ of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of sodium line as compared with standard. | Volume of test-solution. | Width of slit. | Characteristic of potassium line as compared with standard. |
| 30 cm. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Stronger | 0.05 gm.* | 0.18 mm. | Weaker | First. | | |
| 90 " | 0.23 " | Stronger | 0.07 " | 0.80 " | Weaker | 100 cm. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Strong |
| 100 " | 0.23 " | Weaker | 0.09 " | 0.18 " | Weaker | 120 " | 0.23 " | Strong |
| | | Like | 0.10 " | 0.18 " | Like | 130 " | 0.23 " | Strong |
| | | | | | Stronger | 140 " | 0.23 " | Strong |
| | | | | | Stronger | | | Weak |
| | | | | | | Second. | | |
| | | | | | | 120 cm. ³ | 0.23 mm. | Strong |
| | | | | | | 140 " | 0.23 " | Strong |
| | | | | | | 150 " | 0.23 " | Strong |
| | | | | | | 160 " | 0.23 " | Weak |

| First. | | Second. | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|--------|
| (140 × 0.0001 = 0.0140) | | (150 × 0.0001 = 0.0150) | |
| Potassium found..... | 0.0180 gm. | | 0.0150 |
| " taken..... | 0.0150 " | | 0.0150 |
| Error | 0.0010 "=7 per cent | | 0.0000 |

From these results it is plain that the sodium in test and standard may be matched closely enough to allow a fair approximation to be made in the determination of the potassium. In Experiments IV, V and VI, no readjustment of the percentage of sodium in the final dilution, subsequent to the matching of the sodium lines, was attempted; in Experiment VII this point was looked to, so that in this determination the strength of the sodium was kept equal to that found in the matching

the last degree when large amounts of potassium are to be estimated, the method, we think, offers some advantage without too great sacrifice of exactness in the determination of small amounts. In qualitative work the mode of manipulating described is exceedingly satisfactory. Aside from the practical application of the method the point which has been of greatest interest to us is the development of the fact that the presence of sodium salts in the flame is of direct influence in strengthening the spectrum of potassium.

ART. XLIX.—*The Ultra-Violet Spectrum of the Solar Prominences*; by GEORGE E. HALE.*

IN various papers published during the past year, I have called attention to some of the advances in our knowledge of the Solar Prominences which might be expected to follow the application of photographic methods to a study of their forms and spectra. A recent number of this Journal, August, 1891, p. 160, contains reproductions of some photographs obtained in the course of my investigations on this subject at the Kenwood Physical Observatory. I am indebted to Professor Lockyer for the use of a measuring machine during a recent visit to London, and I am now able to give my determinations of wave-length for the new prominence lines, and some conclusions to be drawn from them. But perhaps it will first be well to consider for a moment the apparatus and methods at present employed in the work.

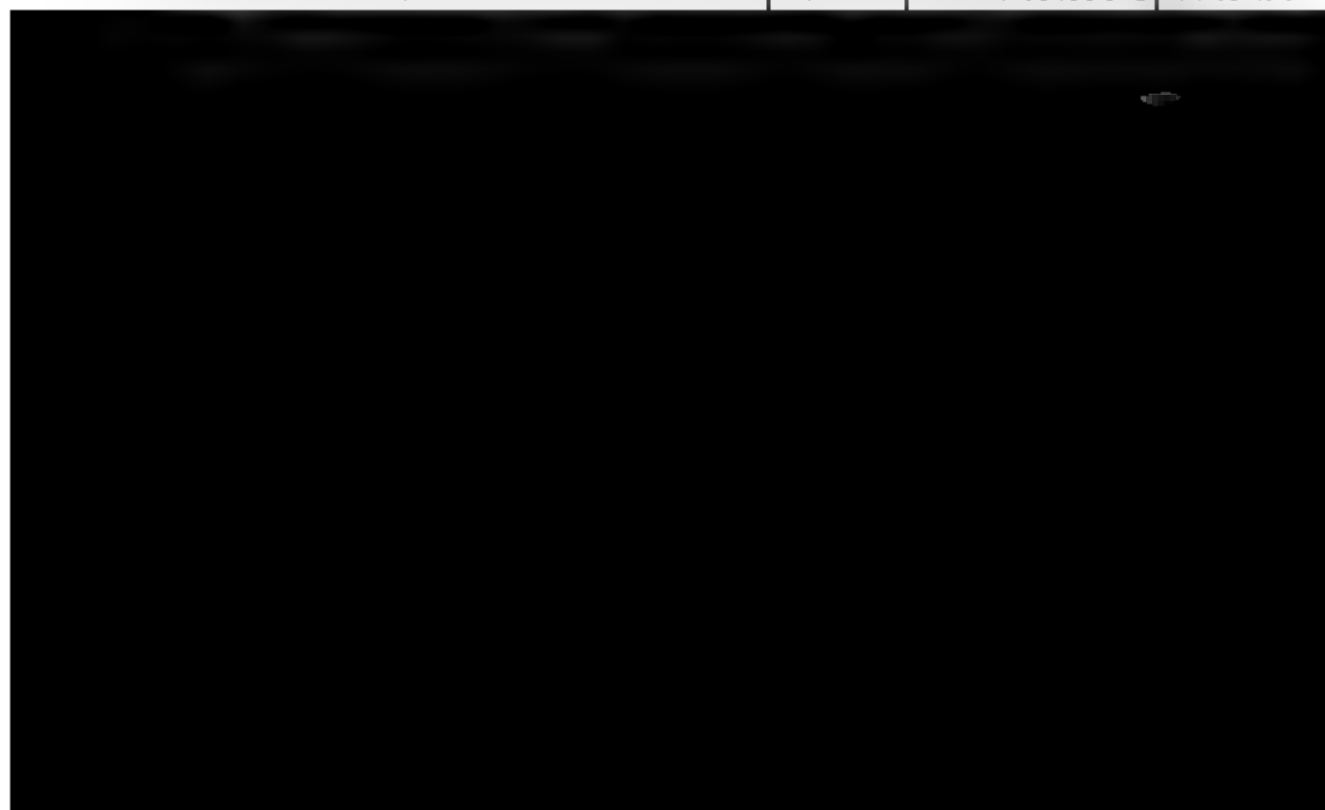
To the eye end of the 12.2 inch equatorial refractor of the Kenwood Observatory a large solar spectroscope is rigidly attached by three steel tubes, and as the spectroscope extends about five feet beyond the focus of the telescope, the declination axis is placed at the center of the combined lengths of the two instruments, in order to reduce the amount of counter-balance required at the object-glass end. The result is very satisfactory, and there can certainly be little fear of flexure in the combination. The whole spectroscope may be rotated by a rack and pinion, so as to make the slit tangential or radial at any point on the sun's limb. The object-glasses of the collimator and observing telescope have $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches clear aperture, and $42\frac{1}{2}$ inches focal length. The 4-inch Rowland grating is ruled with 14,438 lines to the inch, and as the telescopes make with each other a constant angle of 25° , different orders of

* Read at the Cardiff Meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, August, 1891.

spectra are brought into the field of view by rotating the grating. A diagonal eye-piece at the end of the observing telescope allows the spectrum to be observed after the photographic plate is in position.

In photographing the spectrum of a prominence the following is the ordinary process. Let us suppose that it is desired to use a radial slit, in the H and K region of the spectrum. The C line in the second order is brought into the field, and while observing this line the spectroscopie is rotated until the slit is radial at some point on the limb where a prominence is seen. The driving-clock is then started, and the telescope clamped, so that the sun's image is kept as nearly as possible stationary on the slit plate. A small strip of metal, pushed in just behind the slit, excludes the direct solar light, except from a small region near the limb. The whole collimator is next moved by a screw until the slit is brought to the proper focus of the equatorial for K, and the collimator and observing telescope are set at the focus for the same line, the positions being taken from a table of foci, determined by experiment, for the principal lines in the spectrum. After placing the sensitive plate in position, the grating is rotated until the K line in the fourth order is in the middle of the field, the slit is covered, the slide drawn, and the proper exposure given. The exposure of course depends upon the aperture and focal length of the equatorial, the width of the slit, the brilliancy of the grating, the sensitiveness of the plate, etc., but with the ordinary dry plate of sensitometer No. 23 furnished by the Seed Company, and a slit about 0.001 inches wide, I usually find that an exposure of from 20 to 30 seconds gives the best result.

For the first time without an eclipse the prominence spectrum



a number of photographs of its spectrum were made with both radial and tangential slit.

In reducing the wave-lengths of these lines it might be considered easy to obtain values for a given line agreeing closely in the hundredths place of tenth-meters, but two causes have combined to lessen the accuracy of determinations. The H and K reversals almost invariably show some indications of motion of the prominences in the line of sight, and the consequent distortion renders somewhat difficult the proper setting of the spider line of the measuring machine. Again the plate-holder used was made for another purpose, which required that the plane of the plate should be at right angles to the axis of the observing telescope. As the object-glass of the telescope is corrected for the visual region, it is evident that near K there must be a slight change in focus from one side of the plate to the other, and a small error is thus introduced. It will be seen, however, that the measures are sufficiently accurate to allow very little doubt as to the identity of most of the lines. The fact that the solar spectrum, due to the diffuse light of the atmosphere, is photographed simultaneously with the prominence spectrum, is of great advantage in determining the position of the prominence lines, though it has a corresponding disadvantage in concealing very faint lines, which would otherwise be brought out. The wave-lengths of certain standard lines in the solar spectrum have been taken from the list published by Professor Rowland,* and it has thus been easy to find the wave-lengths of the prominence lines by simple interpolation. The value of the micrometer screw has been determined for several regions on every plate by measuring the positions of properly distributed standard lines, the number of separate settings of the spider line in each case ranging from five to fifteen, depending upon the character of the line measured. In the following table the first column contains the wave-lengths of the ultra-violet prominence lines; the second the positions assigned by Ames to the lines in the hydrogen stellar series; and the third, the wave-lengths of the calcium lines at H and K, which Professor Rowland has been kind enough to furnish in advance of publication. I am informed that they are provisional only, but may be relied on to within 1 or 2 in the last place of decimals. In the case of hydrogen, Ames considers that the error in any wave-length cannot amount to more than 0.05 of a unit,† and my own values for the prominence lines must possess at least an equal degree of accuracy, though I am inclined to believe some of them even more reliable. In the fourth and fifth columns I

* This Journal, p. 182, 1887.

† Phil. Mag., July, 1890, p. 49.

have added Cornu's measures of the hydrogen lines,* and Dr. Huggins' wave-lengths of lines in the hydrogen stellar series,† both reduced to the scale of Rowland's map.

| Prominences. | Hydrogen. | Calcium. | Hydrogen. | First Type Stars. |
|--------------|-----------|-------------|-----------|----------------------|
| Hale. | Ames. | Rowland. | Cornu. | Huggins. |
| 3968.56 | ---- | 3968.61 (H) | ---- | ---- |
| 3933.86 | ---- | 3933.80 (K) | ---- | ---- |
| 3888.73 | ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- |
| 3970.11(?) | 3970.25 | ---- | 3969.6 | 3969.6 |
| 3889.14 | 3889.15 | ---- | 3888.5 | 3888.2 |
| 3835.54 | 3835.6 | ---- | 3835.1 | 3834.6 |
| 3798.1 | 3798.0 | ---- | 3797.5 | 3795.6 |
| 3770.8 | 3770.7 | ---- | 3770.0 | 3768.1 |
| ---- | 3750.15 | ---- | 3749.9 | 3746.1 |
| ---- | 3734.15 | ---- | 3734.2 | 3730.6 |
| ---- | 3721.8 | ---- | 3721.1 | 3717.9 |
| ---- | 3711.9 | ---- | 3711.1 | 3707.9 |
| ---- | ---- | ---- | ---- | 3699.4 |

Let us first consider the prominence lines which lie near the centers of the broad dark shades at H and K. In his observations of the chromosphere and prominence spectrum at Mount Sherman, in 1872, Professor Young succeeded in seeing these reversals in a number of cases, but the character of the bright lines could not be made out, and it was considered probable that the broad dark bands were included in the reversal, only the brighter central portions, however, being strong enough to affect the eye. We now find, on the contrary, that the substance producing the bright prominence lines may possibly be

a fine, sharp line. Other stars give intermediate breadths, and in some instances it has entirely disappeared. In the case of H the question is complicated by the fact that hydrogen and calcium possess lines which form a close double at this point, so it is best to consider only K. From the variations of this line it will be seen, apart from the interesting subject of stellar evolution so evidently suggested, that the narrow dark line at the center is very possibly produced by the same substance which, vibrating under different conditions, causes by its absorption the broad dark band.

As the central dark line is known with a high degree of certainty to be due to calcium, it becomes likely that the band is due to the same substance, and as the central dark line of H is also a calcium line, it might perhaps be safe to attribute the H band to the same metal, though in neither case is it well to be too positive in the assertion, for it is somewhat peculiar that the bands and lines appear together in the solar spectrum. If the same substance produces both, and each requires different conditions, possibly of temperature or pressure, for its production, these conditions must presumably exist at different elevations above the photosphere.

The question now arises whether the bright lines in the prominence spectrum agree in position with the dark lines at the center of the H and K bands. Only one or two of my prominence spectra happened to be given the proper exposure to bring out both the bright and dark lines, but in these the coincidence is fairly satisfactory. I have not as yet, however, been able to obtain the wave-lengths of the dark lines in hundredths of a tenth-meter, but Professor Rowland's determinations of wave-lengths for the corresponding calcium lines will answer nearly as well. These have been given in the third column of the table of wave-lengths. It will be seen that in the case of H the prominence line is 0.05 tenth-meters more refrangible, while at K the prominence line is 0.06 tenth-meters less refrangible. Professor Rowland considers his values correct within 1 or 2 hundredths tenth-meters, while the probable errors in the position of the prominence lines, deduced on the assumption of equal weights for the wave-lengths given by each of six plates, are 0.021 and 0.036 tenth-meters for H and K respectively. On the whole, then, there can be little doubt that these prominence lines are due to calcium, and are therefore probably true reversals of the central dark lines of the H and K bands.

It will be of interest next to consider briefly the character of these two prominence lines. In all cases they are quite narrow and sharp, except when motion in the line of sight has produced broadening or distortion. In seven photographs made

with a radial slit both lines gradually become narrower as the distance from the limb increases, and have a pointed appearance. This might be due to an actual decrease in the width of the lines, but, as there is usually a certain increase of intensity toward the limb, the effect may be purely photographic. In several plates, however, there is so little change of intensity that the widening can hardly be due to this cause. The arrow-head appearance so frequently seen with the C and F lines, is often shown when the slit is radial. A rather curious appearance has been found on three plates made with radial slit, and in the two which best show the effect there is a very sudden decrease of intensity in the upper part of the lines. Instead of becoming narrower toward the top, the lines seem to expand symmetrically on either side, and the edges become hazy and indistinct. As in the case of the pointed lines, there is also an expansion toward the limb, but here the edges are clearly defined. The arrow-head appearance is shown in two of these plates. With a tangential slit two plates show the lines expanded at the ends, and in one plate they are pointed. Though in most cases the forms of H and K are very similar, there is a single instance where K is shown sharply double in the fainter portions at each end of the line, and at one end the components seem to diverge slightly. That this is not the result of poor focusing is attested by the sharpness of the lines in the background of solar spectrum; at the same time the appearance is hardly that of an ordinary reversal. One further peculiarity will show that it is safest, for the present at least, not to draw any conclusions from such appearances as have been noted. In a certain position of the mirror of the measuring

much the illumination was such that the edges of the radial



background. This is a well-known contrast effect. The H and K lines, for instance, seem to be surrounded by a lighter band, which follows the contour not only of the lines, but also of the wing by the side of the prominence. If, now, a Fraunhofer line happens to be by the side of a bright line, the contrast is strengthened, and both the bright and the dark lines appear more distinctly than they otherwise would. This is the only simple way in which I can explain some of the appearances of the photographs." The first part of the quotation is all that concerns us at present, for in the negative which I have mentioned as showing this peculiarity particularly well, the Fraunhofer lines are hardly visible above the limb, and none appear within the dark bands at H and K. As Dr. Schuster does not speak of the illumination, I assume that the appearance was generally seen, and this constitutes another point of difference. A penumbra formed by light reflected from the back of the plate would probably extend but little higher than the central line, but in the future plates backed with a dyed collodion film will be employed to obviate any effects of this kind. No entirely satisfactory explanation of the peculiar appearance of these lines has as yet suggested itself.


But on another point there is little room for doubt. The bright H and K lines certainly extend to a very considerable elevation above the sun's limb, and it is extremely probable that calcium is carried to the very top of the highest prominences. With the improved apparatus to be used in a continuation of this research, I hope to be able to ascertain the relative heights of various lines in the prominence spectrum. For instance, while a photograph is being made of H and K, the height of C in the same prominence can be measured with a micrometer. The comparative observations and photographs made up to the present time suggest the belief that calcium attains the highest elevations reached by hydrogen, and the remarkable brilliancy of H and K at the eclipse of 1882 attest the importance of calcium in the prominences. Dr. Schuster is of the opinion that the coronal spectrum contains calcium injected by the prominences, and this may only very gradually descend again to the level of the photosphere.* This supposition seems a very plausible one, and if it be at the same time considered probable that the H and K bands and their central lines are produced by the same substance, the possibility is suggested that the broad dark shades may be caused by the absorption of the cooler vapor at a considerable elevation, while the absorption near the photosphere gives rise to the narrow central lines. This view need not necessarily conflict

* Phil. Trans. vol. clxxx, 1889, (A.), p. 328.

with a belief in a shallow reversing layer, where absorption ordinarily takes place, for the H and K bands are unique in the solar spectrum. It rests, however, on somewhat insecure foundations, and cannot be credited with much weight.

On account of the dark shades at H and K it has proved quite easy to photograph prominence forms with an open slit. With other prominence lines the brilliancy of the background is much increased when the slit is opened, but this is not the case with H and K, and it is often possible to use a slit nearly a quarter of an inch wide. The fourth order spectrum has been employed for this work, and the best results are obtained with an exposure of about one second. It is considered that great advantage will result from a material reduction of this exposure, as the disturbances in our atmosphere have as yet made it impossible to secure the finest details of structure.

It is of interest to note, however, that the first photograph ever taken of the rapid development of a prominence was made in this way by my assistants on July 8, 1891, at 23h. 45m., Chicago M. T. As at first observed through C, the prominence was low, but very bright, and changing rapidly. A great tongue moved rapidly out to an elevation of about 80,000 miles, and at this time the extension was photographed through H and K. In fifteen minutes the prominence had returned to its original form. A reproduction of the photograph is given in the August number of this Journal, and though much has been lost in the printing process, some idea of the actual appearance of the prominence may be gained. A new apparatus for photographing the prominences is now being constructed as the outcome of my investigations on this subject, and this is expected to do away with many of the



very much brighter than any other of the seven ghosts of H and K, and its position with respect to H is not symmetrical with that of the first ghost on the opposite side of this line, while in the case of K the ghosts are very regularly spaced. My assistants report that they were able to see H very plainly double in a brilliant metallic prominence observed July 27, and on one or two occasions Professor Young has made out the same thing. The agreement in wave-length with Ames's hydrogen line at 3970.25 is by no means satisfactory, and more observations and measures are required before a conclusion can be reached.

No one can doubt that the next four prominence lines are members of the well-known hydrogen series, for their agreement in wave-length with the values given by Ames is certainly very striking. Cornu's measures show considerable differences, as do also those of Dr. Huggins, but the small dispersion employed by the latter in this investigation must be borne in mind. There can be little question that Ames' wave-lengths are very near the truth, for they almost exactly correspond with those calculated by Balmer's formula. The measures of the prominence lines also serve to confirm them.

The remaining prominence line at λ 3888.73 has not been accounted for. It forms a close double with the hydrogen line at λ 3889.14, and with it attains as great elevations above the limb as those reached by H and K. The character of the lines, however, is quite different, for while the hydrogen line is wider, and slightly diffuse, the line at λ 3888.73 is very narrow and sharp. I have seen no statement that the hydrogen line has shown any signs of duplicity, and, as Mrs. Huggins has had the kindness to examine the corresponding line in some very sharp photographs of stellar spectra with the same result, we have reason to consider an independent origin probable.

The results so far obtained can only be regarded as preliminary, for with the improvements now being carried out in the telescope and spectroscope, and the much greater frequency of metallic eruptions as the maximum sun-spot period is approached, it is certainly to be hoped that many more lines will be photographed. The ultra-violet spectra of sun-spots have also been worked upon with some indications of success, and there will evidently be no lack of opportunity in the new and interesting fields thus opened to investigation.

London, August 13, 1891.

ART. L.—*Phonics of Auditoriums*; by EPHRAIM CUTTER, M.D., New York.

Reciprocation of sound.—When two strings of the violin family are tuned in unison, on causing one to sound "the air around it assumes a vibratory movement and this being propagated to the second string causes it to vibrate and emit the same sound or tone because each aerial pulse communicates motion to the second string, and as the movements of both are by the supposition isochronous each succeeding impulse augments the effect of the preceding and this phenomenon is termed the *reciprocation of sound*. Instances have occurred of persons who by modulating their voices, have excited vibrations in glasses so powerful as to overcome the cohesive attraction that held the particles together and consequently break them in pieces."—Bird. Nat. Phil.

An effect of air vibration is seen when a shrill whistle or infant's cry produces a flaring or upward projection of an ordinary gas or oil flame turned on just so as not to blaze. The jet shoots up in long digitations which cease to project when the tone stops.

Green in his *History of the English People*, vol. i, p. 67. writes of Dunstan the Ecclesiastical statesman: "One morning a lady summons him to her house to design a robe which she is embroidering, and as he bends with her maidens over their toil, his harp, hung upon the walls, sounds without mortal touch, tones which the excited ears around frame into a joyous antiphon." This would be unintelligible but for the "anti-

same number of vibrations to produce the same musical tone. The size of the auditorium seems to govern this tone, which has been called the key note of the auditorium. Every room has its key note. No one will dispute that music in the key note of the auditorium is more effective than when it is not in that key. An opposite opinion clashes against the above facts. This being so with music, how is it with Phonics?

The differences between music and speech are much less than their joint properties. Both need normal vocal bands. Surgery shows this. A tumor exists which I removed from the vocal bands in 1866. For years before, the patient could not speak nor sing. She could only whisper. In 1891 she speaks and sings.

The same oripulations belong to speech and song. Song prolongs the basic vowel syllable sounds more than speech. These sounds are chiefly formed by the vocal bands alone as the writer since 1862 has shown to himself and others in his own larynx. Speech shortens these sounds. Speech is staccato in music with the rests left out.

The consonants are the same as a general rule in speech and song as to production. Speech and song have pitch, forte and piano.

From this—as Phonics in auditoriums are often a failure, i. e. people can't hear—is there not some remedy by making phonic laws conform to those of music? We think there is and for one thing would suggest *phonics in the key note of the auditorium*.

That is have the pitch of the speaker hold to the key note of the auditorium and vary only as a well regulated song, for example like "Annie Laurie."

The writer has seen this done successfully as follows, in

1. Cincinnati Music Hall, capacity 6000 people, key note F.
2. Prince Albert Memorial Town Hall, Leeds, England.
3. Section rooms of the X International Medical Congress, Berlin, 1890, and other places.

1, 2, 3, were of exceptional difficulty: 1, from its vast size. 2, elegant to the eye but hard for the ear. 3, were picture galleries never intended for the ear.

To find the key note.

Sing the natural scale slowly, *evenly and smoothly*, or play this scale on piano or organ similarly. The note which is most prominent will be the key note.

Those who control auditoriums may employ an expert to do this and post the result. For example, an auditorium of the City Hall at Saratoga Springs was thus tested 1890, and a notice was put up: "The key note of this hall is F."

September, 1891.

ART. LI.—*The Secular Variation of Latitudes*; by GEORGE C. COMSTOCK.

[Read at the Washington Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.]

A POSSIBLE secular change in the position of the terrestrial pole has long been a subject of discussion among astronomers and physicists, and the history of investigations made in this connection resembles in many respects that of similar researches upon stellar parallaxes. The early investigators expected to find, and announced the actual discovery of, very sensible variations of both kinds while their successors overturned their conclusions and traced their results back to errors of observation. Less than a decade ago a vigorous interest in the matter of latitudes seemed to be aroused by Fergola. A plan for systematic research was proposed and adopted and for a time we appeared to be on the eve of a repetition of the brilliant success attained by Bessel and Struve a half century ago in the determination of parallaxes. But Fergola's plan seems to have been abandoned without a trial and so far as astronomers are concerned these investigations have fallen into abeyance.

But an urgent demand for further research comes now from another quarter. The geologists having tried one by one the various hypotheses which have been advanced to account for the glacial periods have found them successively inadequate and untenable. In the inelegant but expressive language of one of these gentlemen they are "in a hole," and the only escape from the difficulty seems to be through the assumption

of ice present in the northern hemisphere at the time of maximum glaciation was distributed in a manner very different from the present arrangement, and this different distribution will be fully explained by shifting the terrestrial pole from its present position to the center of Greenland. Opposed to this explanation, however, stands the common belief of astronomers that the position of the pole if not absolutely fixed is subject only to very inconsiderable changes.

To guard against any possible misapprehension let it be stated once for all that the questions here raised do not relate to the direction of the earth's axis in space, *i. e.* to the phenomena grouped under the names precession and nutation, but to the position of the points in which the rotation axis intersects the earth's surface.

If any such change in the position of the pole as is supposed above has occurred within recent geologic time it may be fairly presumed that some motion will still remain although nothing can be predicated *a priori* in regard to its amount or direction, and the problem which I have proposed to myself is to determine whether there is any such motion of the pole of sufficient magnitude to be shown by existing astronomical data.

Theoretically there are three classes of observations which may contribute to the solution of the problem: determinations of latitude, of azimuth and of longitude; but for the present at least only the first of these can furnish available data and the amount of satisfactory data of this kind is exceedingly small. I do not wish to enlarge here upon the inherent difficulties which stand in the way of determining a change in the latitude of a given station, but some consideration of them is necessary for the proper appreciation of the conclusions which are subsequently reached.

To take a concrete instance, the following determinations of latitude at Greenwich seem to indicate a progressive change in the position of that observatory:

| Date. | Latitude. | Authority. | |
|-------|---------------|------------|---------------------|
| 1693 | 51° 28' 41".7 | Peters. | Flamsteed. |
| 1751 | 38.72 | Auwers. | Bradley. |
| 1826 | 38.59 | Pond. | Gr. Obs. 1834 |
| 1838 | 38.23 | Airy. | Gr. Cat. 1860 |
| 1845 | 38.17 | " | " " " |
| 1855 | 38.15 | " | " " " |
| 1881 | 38.07 | Christie. | Ten Year Catalogue. |
| 1889 | 37.95 | " | Annual Report. |

We have here observations extending over a period of nearly two centuries during which the latitude appears to have diminished very appreciably, but I do not think that such a conclusion can properly be drawn from the data. Dr. Auwers informs me that Bradley's latitude may be anywhere from half a second to a second in error on account of uncertainties inherent in the data, errors of figure and division of the quadrant, errors of the tabular refraction, of the thermometer exposure, etc., and the same may probably be said of Pond's latitude while Flamsteed's is much inferior to either of these. If the several values of the latitude given above had all been derived with the same instrument and by the same method many of these errors would be eliminated from the differences, but in fact five different instruments were employed and the entire apparent variation of the latitude may fairly enough be ascribed to the undetermined errors affecting the results given by these instruments. The same facts obtain for much of the evidence sometimes cited to show a variation of latitude but they are not necessarily true of all of it.

To obtain a reliable indication of a change in latitude we must compare determinations made at a sufficient interval of time by the use of the same instrument and the same methods, or we must compare determinations made by methods which are practically free from systematic error, such as are furnished by the zenith telescope and the prime vertical transit. The results furnished by these instruments depend upon the adopted star places, but by using only observations of the same stars made at different epochs the change of latitude may be made to depend solely upon the proper motions of the stars and the residual error in these proper motions may be almost indefi-

first of which, observations of Polaris, are shown in the following table:

Latitude of Pulkowa. Polaris Observations.

| Date. | Observer. | Latitude. | No. of Obs. |
|--------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-------------|
| 1843 | Peters. | $59^{\circ} 46' 18''.73 \pm 0''.013$ | 371 |
| 1866 | Gylden. | $18.65 \pm .014$ | 236 |
| 1872.5 | Nyrén. | $18.50 \pm .014$ | 155 |
| 1882.0 | Nyrén. | $18.40 \pm .010$ | 184 |

The first three of these values are taken from Nyrén's paper on the latitude of Pulkowa, the last one is derived by myself from the data given at *p.* [50] of the volume of Pulkowa observations cited above, after correcting the individual results there given for the periodic variation of the latitude (Küstner) by means of the formula

$$-0''.26 \sin(\odot - 47^{\circ})$$

derived from meridian circle observations at the Washburn Observatory and confirmed by the special observations made at Berlin, Potsdam and Prague to determine the existence of a periodic variation. If this correction were omitted the value of the latitude for 1882.0 would be increased $0''.04$. A graphical treatment of these data indicates an apparent diminution of the latitude amounting to $0''.005$, six inches, per annum.

To this it has been objected by Bruns (*V. J. S.* vol. xxv, *p.* 15) that such a conclusion presupposes that the difference between the tabular refractions employed and the true refraction at the time of observation is the same for the several epochs and that this assumption requires confirmation. This confirmation is afforded by an investigation by Nyrén contained in vol. xiv above cited. From a discussion of the observations of 127 stars north of $+45^{\circ}$ declination, not including Polaris, treating the latitude and a correction to the assumed refraction as unknown quantities he finds for the epochs,

$$\begin{aligned} 1846 (?) \text{ Latitude} &= 59^{\circ} 46' 18''.66 \\ 1866 \quad \quad \quad &\quad \quad \quad 18.546 \\ \text{Annual variation,} &\quad \quad \quad -0''.006 \end{aligned}$$

This astonishingly close agreement between the results of two independent series of observations will probably suffice to establish the constancy of the refraction at Pulkowa during this period. The corrections to the tabular refractions for the two epochs differ by less than their probable errors.

There is available another series of Pulkowa observations by which to test the reality of the apparent change of latitude. I have compared the declinations of fourteen stars observed

with the prime vertical transit by both Cönn and Nyren, the epochs of their respective observations being in the mean 1862 and 1881. Auwers has published proper motions for all of these stars save one for which I adopt Nyren's value and comparing the declinations observed at the two epochs I find for the variation of the latitude between 1862 and 1881 $-0''.12$ or Annual Variation $-0''.006$, agreeing exactly with the result furnished by the vertical circle. I very much regret that I have not had access to the results of observations made with the prime vertical transit during the years 1840–1860 by W. Struve. I have, however, compared the declinations of the three stars most frequently observed during this period, which are discussed in Nyren's paper *Bestimmung der Nutation der Erdachse*, with Nyren's observations with the same instrument. From 875 observations of these stars at the mean epoch 1846 combined with 113 observations at the epoch 1881 using Auwers' proper motions I find

Annual variation of latitude, $-0''.094$.

Each star shows a diminution of the latitude. These results derived from two different instruments and from different series of observations with these instruments seem to me inexplicable on any other hypothesis than that of a change of latitude and I adopt as the rate of variation at Pulkowa $-0''.006$ per annum.

I know of no other European observatory at which a variation of latitude can be established in an equally satisfactory manner and the only one to which reference seems required is Königsberg. Two careful determinations of the latitude of the Venus transit have been made with the follow-

determined from observations of fundamental stars made with the Repsold meridian circle. In the reduction of the observations the latitude is made to depend upon the declinations of these stars as given in the *Berliner Jahrbuch* and observations on opposite sides of the zenith were combined in such a way as to eliminate the errors of the instrument and of the refraction tables. The results of separate years are given in the following table:

Meridian circle latitudes of Madison.

| Date. | Obs'r. | Latitude. | Ann. var. | Lat. 1890·0* |
|--------|--------------|--|----------------|---------------|
| 1883·8 | T. | $43^{\circ} 4' 36''\cdot45 \pm 0''\cdot14$ | | $36''\cdot70$ |
| 84·5 | H. and C. | $36\cdot49 \pm 0\cdot04$ | $+ 0''\cdot06$ | $36\cdot72$ |
| 85·5 | H. C. and U. | $36\cdot54 \pm 0\cdot04$ | $+ \cdot05$ | $36\cdot72$ |
| 87·2 | U. and L. | $36\cdot61 \pm 0\cdot04$ | $+ \cdot04$ | $36\cdot72$ |
| 88·6 | B. | $36\cdot76 \pm 0\cdot03$ | $+ \cdot11$ | $36\cdot82$ |
| 89·6 | B. and E. | $36\cdot81 \pm 0\cdot03$ | $+ \cdot05$ | $36\cdot83$ |
| 90·2 | B. and E. | $36\cdot74 \pm 0\cdot06$ | $- \cdot11$ | $36\cdot73$ |

It should be said in regard to these values that the observations of each year except the first and last are distributed through the whole circuit of twenty-four hours of right ascension and are sufficiently numerous to furnish a good representation of the system of declinations adopted as fundamental. The latitudes thus derived are affected with whatever constant error inheres in the declination system and in the instrument itself, but since we are here concerned only with variations of latitude constant errors are of no consequence and we may therefore neglect the absolute value of the latitude and inquire what interpretation is to be placed upon its apparent annual increase.

I do not think that it will be seriously maintained by any competent critic that this variation is due to error in the star places for, the same stars being observed year after year, this would imply that the mean of the proper motions of some hundreds of fundamental stars is in error to the amount of $0''\cdot06$.

The variation may be due to accidental error of observation, but the uniform progression and the small probable errors of the results render this hypothesis somewhat improbable.

No correction for flexure has been applied to the observations and it may be supposed that the variation is due to a progressive change in the flexure constants. Nearly forty years ago W. Struve adopted this as the explanation of an apparent annual variation of $0''\cdot06$ in the latitude of Dorpat.

* Computed with the finally adopted elements of the motion of the pole.

But in the present case the sine flexure is eliminated by giving equal weight to the observations of stars on opposite sides of the zenith in the reduction of each night's work, and the cosine flexure is commonly supposed to be eliminated from the mean of observations made Circle W. and Circle E.

I know of no other reasonable hypothesis to adopt in this connection except that of an actual change in the latitude, but before coming to any conclusion it will be well to consider another set of latitude determinations which are available. The latitude of Madison was first determined in 1873 by officers of the U. S. Coast Survey, employing the Talcott method, and since that date five other determinations have been made by the same method. The final results of these determinations are contained in the following table:

| Date. | Obs'r. | No. of | | Seconds of Lat. | Periodic Term. | Corrected Latitude |
|---------|---------|--------|--------|--|----------------------|---------------------|
| | | Obs. | Pairs. | | | |
| 1873-82 | B. | 60 | 12 | 36 ⁷ .24 \pm 0 ⁷ .05 | + 0 ⁷ .15 | 36 ⁷ .39 |
| 81-84 | C. | 26 | 16 | 36 58 \pm .13 | + .17 | 36.75 |
| 84-50 | C. & H. | 72 | 11 | 36 98 \pm .08 | — .03 | 36.95 |
| 89-33 | T. | 84 | 15 | 37.36 \pm .14 | — .23 | 37.13 |
| 90-50 | T. | 53 | 11 | 37.17 \pm .09 | — .03 | 37.14 |
| 91-50 | C. | 49 | 13 | 37.21 \pm .06 | — .02 | 37.19 |

The latitudes determined in 1884, '90 and '91 are from observation of substantially the same pairs of stars, the other latitudes are from other stars but all of the declinations employed have been taken either directly from the *Berliner Jahrbuch* or from a discussion of the data contained in modern catalogues of precision reduced by the application of systematic correc-

agreeing more closely than could be expected with the variation indicated by the meridian circle, while the several latitudes from which the annual variation is derived show the following astonishingly close agreement when reduced by it to a common epoch :

| Date. | Latitude. | 1890·0. | Weight. | v . |
|--------|---------------|---------|---------|--------|
| 1873·6 | 43° 4' 37"·10 | | 4·0 | —0"·03 |
| 81·6 | | 37·11 | 0·6 | — ·02 |
| 84·5 | | 37·19 | 1·6 | + ·06 |
| 89·3 | | 37·16 | 0·5 | + ·03 |
| 90·5 | | 37·12 | 1·2 | — ·01 |
| 91·5 | | 37·13 | 2·8 | ·00 |

Since these two independent and dissimilar series of observations indicate the same variation of the latitude I conclude that this variation is real and I adopt for Madison

$$\text{Annual variation of latitude} = +0''\cdot043$$

If such a variation as this is actually in progress it must affect other latitudes and it should be recognized at every American observatory at which there is a series of latitude determinations extending over a considerable number of years. Unfortunately very few such series of observations have been published, the Naval Observatory at Washington being almost the only institution from which the requisite data can be obtained. The observations made here with the mural and transit circles have been discussed recently by Prof. Hall (A. J., No. 224) who concludes that "there is no proof of a secular change in the latitude." So far as this conclusion relates to the meridian instruments of the observatory I concur in it, but Prof. Hall includes in his discussion a comparison of the declinations of α Lyræ determined with the prime vertical transit in the years 1845, '48 and 1862-'67, and with reference to these observations I dissent from his conclusion and wish to present in some detail the evidence furnished by this instrument which on account of its extreme precision and its freedom from systematic error seems entitled to far more confidence than can properly be accorded to the meridian instruments. I must here acknowledge my indebtedness to the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory, Capt. F. W. McNair, U. S. N., who has placed at my disposal the manuscript results of unpublished observations made with this instrument in the years 1882-'84.

I have collated all the observations of α Lyræ, including fifty-eight made in the years 1846-'50, but omitted from Prof. Hall's data; have compared them with Auwers' declination of the star carried back to the epochs to which the observations

were reduced and from this comparison and a similar comparison with Boss's declination I have derived the following values of the latitude :

| Epoch. | No. of Obs. | Seconds of Latitude. | | Ann. Var. | |
|--------|-------------|----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| | | Auwers. | Boss. | Auwers. | Boss. |
| 1847.2 | 192 | 37 ^s .26 | 37 ^s .64 | + 0 ^s .050 | + 0 ^s .031 |
| 1864.5 | 436 | 38.13 | 38.17 | + .041 | + .018 |
| 1883.5 | 123 | 38.00 | 38.61 | | |

The progressive character of the results is here unmistakable and the Madison variation is confirmed. But in order that my conclusions may not be open to the objection of resting upon an assumed proper motion of a single star, I have derived a value of the latitude for the several epochs from all of the observations of fundamental stars (*Berliner Jahrbuch*), which are available for this purpose with the following result :

| Epoch. | No. of Stars. | No. of Obs. | Seconds of Lat. | Ann. Var |
|--------|---------------|-------------|--|-----------------------|
| 1847.0 | 41 | 461 | 37 ^s .31 \pm 0 ^s .03 | + 0 ^s .047 |
| 1864.5 | 1 | 436 | 38.13 \pm .06 | + 0 ^s .037 |
| 1883.5 | 9 | 306 | 38.83 \pm .05 | |

Auwers' proper motions have been employed in this comparison, but it should be stated here that there is some uncertainty in regard to the proper motions employed by the observers in reducing the observed declinations to a mean equinox, since the printed volumes contain no indication of these. It is stated in connection with the mural circle observations that the proper motions there employed for this purpose were taken from the *Nautical Almanac* for 1848, and I

following table in the preparation of which I have assumed that the earlier observations were reduced with sufficiently accurate values of the proper motions to require no further correction. The error of this assumption will in some measure tend to counterbalance the error made above in the same connection.

| Star. | Correction to Auwers' δ . | | | | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|------|--------|------|------------|
| | 1847. | Obs. | 1883. | Obs. | 1847-1883. |
| α Androm. | +1".09 | 17 | -0".14 | 28 | +1".23 |
| Gr. 1450 | +1.12 | 2 | +0.69 | 24 | +0.43 |
| 10 Leo. Min. | +1.49 | 2 | +0.16 | 10 | +1.33 |
| 31 Leo. Min. | +1.79 | 5 | -0.31 | 23 | +2.10 |
| 17 H. Can. Ven. | +1.79 | 3 | -0.15 | 13 | +1.94 |
| π Herculis | +1.49 | 5 | +0.18 | 28 | +1.31 |
| δ Herculis | +1.78 | 3 | -0.26 | 19 | +2.04 |
| α Lyræ | +1.52 | 192 | -0.10 | 123 | +1.62 |
| 10 Lacertæ | +1.34 | 8 | -0.12 | 38 | +1.46 |

This comparison may be interpreted as indicating either that the latitude of Washington changed to the amount of 1".5 between 1847 and 1883 or that Auwers' proper motion of each of these nine stars is too great and that the mean value of this error is 0".041. I do not at present see how to draw any other conclusion and of the two the former appears to me the more probable especially as it is confirmed by the Madison observations. I therefore adopt for Washington

Annual variation of latitude , +0".042

I have searched diligently for other American data to compare with the above but I have found nothing which certainly contravenes it and but little which confirms it. A comparison of the latitudes determined at Annapolis by Chauvenet in 1853 and by Brown in 1883 indicates an increase of the latitude by 1".0 between these dates, but it is questionable if the observations are comparable.

The results at Cambridge are conflicting as is shown in the following table taken from vol. xvii of the Annals of the Harvard College Observatory, excepting the result for 1845 which I have derived from a rediscussion of the original data contained in Peirce's memoir on the Latitude of Cambridge.

| Date. | Latitude. | Method Employed. |
|--------|----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1845.0 | 42° 22' 47".00 \pm 0".19 | Prime Vertical Transit. |
| 55.8 | 47.61 \pm .08 | Zenith Telescope. |
| 85.8 | 47.64 \pm .02 | Almucantar. |

In my judgment no conclusion can be drawn from these numbers until the relative errors of the several methods have been

more closely investigated than has yet been done. For the present the only available data seems to be contained in the following table:

| Station. | Longitude. | Ann. Var. of ϕ . | Weight | No. of Determin's. | Comput'd Ann. Var. |
|------------|-----------------|-----------------------|--------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Pulkowa | $-30^{\circ}.3$ | $-0''.006$ | 4 | 3 | $-0''.007$ |
| Königsberg | -20.5 | -0.008 | 1 | 1 | -0.000 |
| Washington | $+77.0$ | $+0.042$ | 4 | 1 | $+0.044$ |
| Madison | $+89.4$ | $+0.043$ | 4 | 2 | $+0.041$ |

The longitudes are reckoned from Greenwich.

I have made a least square solution of these data to determine the most probable direction and amount of motion of the pole and find a motion of $0''.044$ along the meridian 69° west of Greenwich. The last column of the table above contains the values of the annual variation at the several stations computed from these elements.

If the elements of the motion of the pole thus derived are even a rough approximation to the truth they furnish valuable indications of the methods by which our knowledge may be extended. In the first place European observatories cannot be expected to show any considerable change of latitude. Observations made there will be chiefly valuable for determining the direction of motion of the pole and for this purpose a careful comparison of the older latitudes with modern determinations is much to be desired. In particular the latitude determinations made at Dorpat by W. Struve in 1824 and 1827 with the meridian circle and prime vertical transit are for this purpose probably the most valuable data not yet utilized. I have endeavored to compare these with similar modern

These methods as commonly applied require an accurate knowledge of the declinations and proper motions of the stars but it is perfectly feasible to eliminate both declinations and proper motions and leave the resulting variation of latitude almost if not quite free from systematic error. To illustrate, suppose two stations to be selected as nearly as possible on the same parallel of latitude, one in longitude 70° west of Greenwich and the other 110° east and let the latitudes of the stations be simultaneously determined by zenith telescope observations of the same pairs of stars. The difference of the latitudes of the stations thus determined is entirely independent of the star places, and I know of no source of systematic error by which this difference can be affected except possible personal peculiarities of the observers which can be eliminated by an interchange of observers if this should be thought desirable. The periodic variation of the latitude would be eliminated from the mean of observations made at epochs six months apart. An annual motion of the pole of $0''.045$ will alter the difference of latitude of these stations by twice this amount per year giving a change in the difference of latitude amounting to $1''$ in eleven years, a quantity which cannot possibly escape careful observations with the zenith telescope or prime vertical transit. If similar observations be conducted near the meridian 20° east of Greenwich they will furnish the best attainable data for determining the direction of motion of the pole. The execution of this program, which can be effected within a dozen years, will add more to our knowledge of the variation, or possible permanence, of terrestrial latitudes than can be furnished by all the astronomical observations that have hitherto been made. By a proper selection of stations it will even be possible within a year or two to test the results above obtained. The following pairs of stations approximately satisfy the conditions above indicated and in addition possess the great advantage that at each one of them a good value of the latitude was determined by the Talcott method prior to 1875:

| | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| Vladivostok, Lat. $43^{\circ} 6' \cdot 6$ | Peking, Lat. $39^{\circ} 54' \cdot 3$ |
| Madison, Wis. 43 4·6 | Columbus, O. 39 57·7 |
| Nagasaki, Lat. $32^{\circ} 43' \cdot 4$ | |
| Macon, Ga. 32 50·4 | |
| San Diego, Cal. 32 43·1 | |

If these stations can now be reoccupied the simultaneous determination of latitudes at the two stations composing a group will furnish the beginning of the program above indicated while the latitudes thus derived will be immediately

available for comparison with the earlier determinations. I know no reason to suppose that the determinations of latitude already made at the other stations are less precise than that at Madison and a rediscussion of this determination has shown that by the aid of improved star places the latitude referred to Auwers' declination system is determined for the epoch 1873 with a probable error of $0''.05$. If the same degree of precision obtains at the other stations a new set of determinations in 1892 would furnish for a single pair of stations a value of the annual motion of the pole with a probable error of only $0''.003$.

But little difficulty will be experienced in securing new determinations at the American stations. I will myself become responsible for the observations at Madison, and it is probable that upon a proper presentation of the case being made to the Superintendent of the Coast and Geodetic Survey the observations at Columbus and Macon or San Diego will be undertaken by that organization. To secure the reoccupation of the Asiatic stations, however, is a very different matter, for which concerted action of some kind will probably be necessary, and it is with a view to securing such action that I present this paper to the Section for discussion.

ART. LII.—*On the Capture of Comets by Planets, especially their Capture by Jupiter*; by H. A. NEWTON.

[Continued from p. 199, Sept., 1891.]

30. If there are assumed to be n comets equably distributed

comets if unperturbed. Evidently an equal number cross the surface S' entering the sphere in each unit of time.

If now ω be the angle which the comet's unperturbed motion is making with the planet's motion, and if v , or its equal $v/\sqrt{2}$, be the planet's velocity in its orbit about the sun, then $v_0^2 = \frac{1}{2}v^2[3 - 2\sqrt{2}\cos\omega]$. The element dS may be taken to be the elemental zone between the two small circles whose common pole is the planet's quit, and whose distances from the planet's quit are ω and $\omega + d\omega$. Then $dS = 2\pi \sin \omega d\omega$. The number of comets entering S' in a unit of time with quits within that elemental zone will be

$$\frac{1}{2}nv_0r'^2 \times 2\pi \sin \omega d\omega = \frac{\pi nvr'^2}{2\sqrt{2}}(3 - 2\sqrt{2}\cos\omega)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \omega d\omega.$$

The integral of this,

$$\frac{\pi nvr'^2}{2\sqrt{2}} \int_0^\pi (3 - 2\sqrt{2}\cos\omega)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin \omega d\omega = \frac{7}{8}\pi nvr'^2,$$

expresses the total number of comets that, under the hypotheses that have been made, would in a unit of time enter the sphere S' .

31. If we compare the two expressions obtained in Arts. 27 and 30 we find that the number of comets which, in a given period of time come nearer to the sun than r is to the number that (unperturbed) come nearer to the planet than r' as $6r^2$ is to $7r'^2$. The factor $\frac{7}{8}$ expresses the increase of numbers caused by the planet's motion in its circular orbit. The value of r' , as has been said, must not be too small, nor yet must it be very large.

32. In order to determine the number N of comets which in a unit of time will have their periodic times reduced below a given period we may make use of the isergonal curves represented in Figs. 2-18. Although the diagrams were not constructed to exhibit the motions of the bodies, yet they may be utilized for that purpose. Let OH be the tangent to the planet's orbit, O the place of the planet considered at rest, and let the plane HOE contain the shortest line d between the two orbits. This d will be the abscissa of the point at which the comet's unperturbed orbit will cut the plane. The ordinate of the same point, produced if necessary, will be the projection of the comet's path upon the plane HOE , and the comet's path makes with the plane the angle θ . The velocity of the comet perpendicular to the plane will be $v_0 \sin \theta$. By reason of the hypothesis that the comets are equably distributed, the points of intersection with the plane HOE will be equably distributed over the plane. Hence the number of

comets whose orbits are in the element dS of the celestial sphere and that will pass the planet in a unit of time in such a way as to have their periodic times reduced below a given period will be equal to the area inclosed in the corresponding isergonal curve multiplied by the velocity perpendicular to the plane, $v_0 \sin \theta$, and by the factor $\frac{ndS}{4\pi}$. If $@$ is the semi-major axis of the orbit for the limiting periodic time, the area of the corresponding isergonal curve will be (Art. 17).

$$\frac{\pi}{\sin \theta} \left(\frac{4m^2 @^2}{s^2} - \left(\frac{2m@ \cos \theta}{s} - \frac{mr}{s^2} \right)^2 \right).$$

For dS we may, as before, take $2\pi \sin \omega d\omega$, and we shall then have

$$N = \frac{\pi n}{2} \int v_0 \sin \omega \left[\frac{4m^2 @^2}{s^2} - \left(\frac{2m@ \cos \theta}{s} - \frac{mr}{s^2} \right)^2 \right] d\omega.$$

The integration must extend through the positive values of the quantity in square brackets beginning at $\omega = 0$. [In case $\omega = 0$ gives a negative value for the quantity in square brackets we must integrate between the two values of ω corresponding to the zero value of the bracketed quantity.] We may make S the independent variable by the equations $s ds = \sqrt{2} \sin \omega d\omega$, $v_0 \sqrt{2} = sv$, and $2s \cos \theta = 1 - s^2$.

These give:

$$N = \frac{1}{4} \pi n m^2 v \int \left[4@^2 - \left(\frac{@ - r - @s^2}{s} \right)^2 \right] ds.$$

33. If now we require the number of comets which in each unit of time shall pass the planet in such way as that they

35. If Jupiter is the planet, $m = \frac{1}{1080}$, and we may express these ratios as

$$1\ 000\ 000\ 000 : 126 : 839 : 1701 : 2670.$$

That is, assuming the hypotheses of Art. 26, and regarding the planet as without dimension so as to intercept any comets, *if in a given period of time a thousand million comets come in parabolic orbits nearer to the sun than Jupiter, 126 of them will have their orbits changed into ellipses with periodic times less than one-half that of Jupiter; 839 of them will have their orbits changed into ellipses with periodic times less than that of Jupiter; 1701 of them will have their orbits changed into ellipses with periodic times less than once and a half times that of Jupiter; and 2670 of them will have their orbits changed into ellipses with periodic times less than twice that of Jupiter.*

36. Another and perhaps a more important inquiry is this, what effect have the perturbations of the planet in bringing or not bringing the comets to move in the same direction that the planet is moving after the comets have by perturbation had their periodic times largely reduced. For simplicity and as a special example I shall consider the action of Jupiter only, and also only his action upon those comets whose periodic times are reduced to be less than Jupiter's period, the original orbits of the comets being parabolic. In other words, how many of the 839 comets which are reduced (Art. 35,) to have periodic times less than Jupiter's period will after perturbation have goals distant less than 15° , 30° , 45° , etc., severally from Jupiter's goal?

37. Let BA, Fig. 19, be drawn to represent v , and CA to represent $v\sqrt{2}$. With A as a center and AB and AC as radii describe the semicircumferences BLO and CHG. Let the angle BAH be made equal to ω and BH be drawn; then HA will represent the comet's velocity about the sun, BA the planet's velocity about the sun, and therefore HB the comet's velocity v_0 in its orbit about the planet before perturbation. About B as center describe the semicircumference KHT. Since the relative velocity after as well as before perturbation is equal to HB, therefore the velocity of the comet about the sun after perturbation will evidently be represented by a line drawn from some point in the semicircumference KHT to A. If the velocity is increased the new velocity will be represented by a line to A from some point in the arc KH, if diminished by a line to A from some point in the arc HT. If the new velocity is less than the planet's velocity, and so the new cometic period less than the planet's period, the new velocity will be represented by a line to A from some point in the arc ET.

If in a diagram constructed for $\omega = \text{BAH}$ the isergonal curve be drawn for $\hat{a} = r$, those comets for which d and h represent points within that isergonal curve will after perturbation have velocities represented by lines drawn from points in ET to A, while comets for which d and h represent points outside that isergonal curve will after perturbation have directions of motion represented by lines drawn to A from points in EHK.

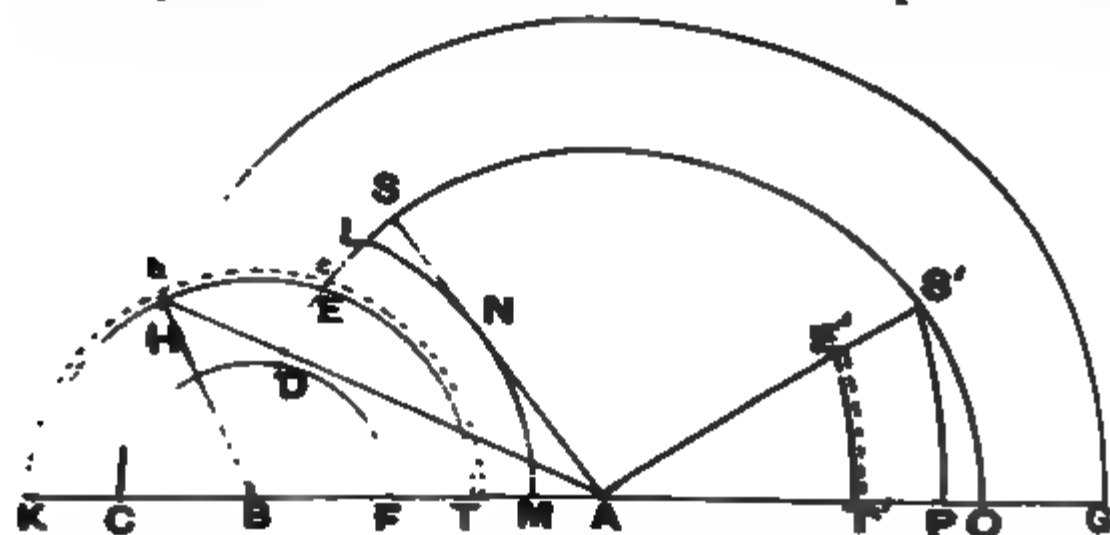


FIG. 12.

The number of comets having motions represented by lines to A from points in ET will be proportional to the area of the isergonal curve $\hat{a} = r$. Let the angle BAS represent a limiting value ω of distance of quits of comets from Jupiter's quit after perturbation. The comets which are thus limited and at the same time have $\hat{a} < r$ will be moving in lines directed to A from points in the area bounded by the straight lines SA and AF, and the arcs FD and DS. Let ω receive an increment $d\omega = \text{Hh}$ and let a new semicircumference be drawn

AFDS will give the number of comets which in a unit of time will pass the planet in such a way as to have $@ < r$ and $\omega' < \text{BAS}$. When the elemental area does not extend from the arc DS to the line BA, the area of another appropriate isergonal curve is to be used in determining Φ .

By Art. 17 we have

$$\Phi = \pi m^2 \left[4@^2 - \left(\frac{@ - r - @s^2}{s} \right)^2 \right].$$

For the elemental areas of the surface AFDS which end on the arc DS we make $@ = r$, and let Φ_0 be the resulting value of Φ ; then $\Phi_0 = \pi m^2 r^2 (4 - s^2)$.

For elemental areas that end on the radius AS the values of $@$ on that line are functions of s . To compute them let v' be the comet's velocity in its orbit about the sun, and hence equal to the distance of the point on AS from Δ ; then, by the triangle of velocities

$$v'^2 + v''^2 - 2r'v' \cos \omega'' = v_0^2 = s^2 v'^2.$$

Again by the laws of gravitation,

$$v''^2 = \left(2 - \frac{r}{@} \right) v'^2.$$

Hence

$$s^2 = 3 - \frac{r}{@} - 2\sqrt{2 - \frac{r}{@}} \cos \omega'',$$

or

$$\frac{@}{r} = \frac{3 - s^2 - 2 \cos^2 \omega'' \pm 2 \cos \omega'' (s^2 - \sin^2 \omega'')^{\frac{1}{2}}}{9 - 8 \cos^2 \omega'' - 6s^2 + s^4}.$$

Let Φ' and Φ'' be the two values of Φ obtained by substituting in Φ these values of $@$, Φ'' representing the value for the point nearer to A.

39. If $\omega'' = 90^\circ$, and therefore $\cos \omega'' = 0$, we have along the limiting line, the two values of $@$ equal, hence

$$\frac{@}{r} = \frac{1}{3 - s^2}, \text{ and } \Phi' = \frac{s^2 - 1}{s^2(3 - s^2)^2},$$

so that the number of comets having quits less than 90° from Jupiter's quit and $@ < r$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{nv}{4} \int_{\sqrt{2}-1}^{\sqrt{2}} \Phi_0 ds - \frac{nv}{4} \int_1^{\sqrt{2}} \Phi' ds &= \frac{\pi nvm^2 r^2}{4} \left[\int_{\sqrt{2}-1}^{\sqrt{2}} (4 - s^2) ds - 4 \int_1^{\sqrt{2}} \frac{(s^2 - 1) ds}{s^2(3 - s^2)} \right] \\ &= \frac{\pi nvm^2 r^2}{12} (7 + \sqrt{2}) = .7012 \pi nvm^2 r^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since the whole number of such comets is (Art. 33) equal to $.925 \pi nvm^2 r^2$, the number of comets the distance of whose quits

from Jupiter's quit is between 90° and 180° is $\cdot 224 \pi n v m' r'$. The number of the comets for which $@ < r$ that have inclinations to the ecliptic less than 90° is to the number that have inclinations greater than 90° as 701 is to 224. *Of the 839 comets spoken of in Art. 36, 203 will after perturbation have retrograde motions, and 636 will have direct motions.*

40. If ω'' is less than 90° the expression to be integrated in order to cover the area SAFD will be

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2}-1}^{\sin \omega''} \Phi_0 ds + \int_{\sin \omega''}^{2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \omega''} (\Phi_0 - \Phi') ds + \int_{\sin \omega''}^1 \Phi'' ds.$$

If ω'' is greater than 90° the corresponding expression becomes

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2}-1}^{2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \omega''} \Phi_0 ds - \int_1^{2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \omega''} \Phi'' ds.$$

As the value of $@$ introduces into Φ' and Φ'' only one radical in s , and that a radical of the second degree, these integrations are possible. Finite summation is however more convenient. Computing the values for each interval of 15° we construct the following table. The first column indicates the interval in values of ω'' : the second column gives that coefficient of $\frac{1}{2} \pi n v m' r'$ that must be used to obtain the number of comets which in a unit of time will pass perihelion nearer than Jupiter's distance to the sun, shall also have their periodic times reduced to be less than Jupiter's period, and shall also leave Jupiter's vicinity so that the distance between the quits of the two bodies is between the two values in column I: the third column indicates the distribution of the 839 comets of Art. 36 through the twelve zones.

TABLE III.

from Jupiter's quit, while only 38 of them have quits within 45° of Jupiter's goal.

41. Table III gives the distribution of the comet quits relative to Jupiter's quit. It may also be used to determine how many of the comets whose orbits are thus changed shall have an inclination to the plane of Jupiter's orbit less than a given angle.

Let the angle be 30° . Let Q be Jupiter's quit on the celestial sphere, Q' the comet's quit and S the sun's position as seen from Jupiter. Then in the triangle QQ'S put ω'' for QQ' the distance of the quits. The side QS = 90° , and QSQ' will be the inclination of the orbits. Represent this angle by i and the angle Q'QS by η . Then $\sin \eta = \cot \omega'' \cot i$.

Let two small circles be drawn about Q at distances ω'' and $\omega'' + d\omega''$ then if $d\omega''$ be made 15° the numbers in the second or third columns of table III indicate how many quits are in the several zones of 15° on the celestial sphere. These may be distributed at smaller intervals than 15° by known processes. All the quits that lie in the lune between two semicircles drawn through S so as to make angles of 30° with QS will evidently have orbits inclined less than 30° to Jupiter's orbit. From $\omega'' = 0$ to $\omega'' = 30^\circ$ all the quits are included in the lune. From $\omega'' = 30^\circ$ to $\omega'' = 90^\circ$ we compute η from the equation $\sin \eta = \cot \omega'' \cot 30^\circ$; then the portion of the quits in any elemental zone that fall in the lune is to the whole number of quits in that elemental zone as this value of η is to 90° . These may be summed by finite summation, and the result is that among the 839 comets 257 would move in orbits inclined less than 30° to the orbit of Jupiter.

42. If a like summation be made for the equal lune that contains Jupiter's goal we find 51 to be the number out of the 839 comets which move in orbits inclined more than 150° to Jupiter's orbit. That is, *somewhat more than five times as many of these comets move in direct orbits inclined less than 30° to Jupiter's orbit as move in retrograde orbits inclined less than 30° to Jupiter's orbit.*

43. The comet has been thus far considered as approaching Jupiter while moving in a parabolic orbit about the sun. If the comet however is moving in any other orbit, and it passes near to the planet, the result of the planet's perturbing action will in general be quite similar to the result when the orbit is parabolic, the other circumstances of the approach being assumed to be alike in the two cases.

44. These are perturbations during one transit past the planet. But the comet, unless the orbit is further changed by another planet, must return at each revolution to the place where it

encountered Jupiter. At some time Jupiter will be nigh that place nearly at the same time as the comet, and the comet will suffer a new, and perhaps a large perturbation. Its period will again be changed, being shortened or lengthened according as the comet passes before or behind the planet. This process will be repeated again and again, since after any number of encounters the new orbit of the comet will still pass near to the orbit of the planet.

This repeated action makes it possible to have an orbit shortened in period by several passages near to Jupiter instead of its being done at one passage. A much larger proportion of comets than 839 out of 1,000,000,000 might therefore have their periodic times reduced below the period of Jupiter.

45. If the comet's orbit is largely inclined to the ecliptic and hence its motion makes a large angle with that of Jupiter the diagrams figs. 10-18 show that there is nearly an even chance that the velocity will be increased or diminished. A considerable fractional part of the whole number of such comets will at each passage be thrown out of the solar system altogether, or thrown into such long orbits that they will return only at very great intervals of time. This class of comets cannot be therefore regarded as permanent members of the family of short period comets, except such of them as happen to come so near to other planets as to have their orbits changed in such wise that they do not have thereafter the near approach to Jupiter's orbit. But when an orbit is greatly inclined to the plane of the solar system the comet passes through the plane in general at a considerable angle and the chance of coming close to another planet is relatively small.

46. On the other hand all the comets which, after centuries

and become permanent members of the solar system, will as a rule (but with exceptions) move in orbits of moderate inclination to the ecliptic, and with direct motions.

We know as a fact that most short period comets do move in orbits having small inclinations and direct motions, while long period and parabolic comets move at all possible inclinations to the ecliptic. If the short period comets have been changed by Jupiter and other planets from parabolic orbits, the preceding investigation shows why their orbits have now small inclinations to the ecliptic, and the comets themselves have direct motions.

ART. LIII.—*Distribution of Titanic Oxide upon the surface of the Earth*; by F. P. DUNNINGTON, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va.

AT the Ann Arbor meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Science in 1885, I read a short paper* which considered the occurrence of titanic oxide in considerable amount in certain soil of Albemarle Co., Va.; and in an article published† in 1888, by Mr. J. F. McCaleb and myself, we presented estimations of this substance in sixteen specimens of soil from scattered points of the United States.

In view of the unfrequent mention of this element as a constituent of rocks and the very rare mention of its occurrence in soils, I have endeavored to secure samples of soil and some rocks from points scattered over the earth's surface; and, including the before mentioned sixteen, I herewith present the results of examining eighty specimens.

The method employed in the recent determinations is the following: weigh into a platinum crucible one gram of the powdered sample, ignite, again weigh, then moisten with water and add 2 or 3 c.c. of hydrofluoric acid,‡ gradually heat to dryness, add about 7 grams of sodium acid sulphate, gradually heat to low redness for 1 or 2 hours, cool, digest in 5 per cent diluted sulphuric acid for several hours, filter, to filtrate§ add about 1 c.c. of hydrogen peroxide solution and compare the color so produced with one similarly obtained from a standard solution of titanic oxide.

* Proc. A. A. A. S., xxxiv. 132.

† American Chem. Jour., x, 36.

‡ This acid was used before seeing the article of Dr. Noyes in Jour. Anal. Chem., v, 39.

§ Method of A. Weller: Berichte d. deutsch. chem. Gesell., xv, 2592.

To present a more satisfactory comparison with the amount of titanic oxide in the rocks, the percentage on the ignited soil is given together with that on the air-dried soil.

Nos. (1) to (12) are all from Albemarle Co., Va. (1) is dark red clay, from Carter's mountain, farm of Rev. J. T. Randolph being the soil from which was formed a fulgerite(?) which first drew my attention to this occurrence of titanic oxide. (2), deep red clay, one mile south of (1). (3), red clay, one mile north of (1). (4), red clay, one-half mile west of (1). (5), light red sand, one mile northwest of (1). (6), red bottom soil, one and one-half miles northwest of (1). (7), white micaceous soil, near McCormick Observatory, University Va., and three miles west of (1). (8), near chemical laboratory of University Va. (9), mica schist, one-half mile north of (8). (10), deep red clay, ten miles southwest of (1). (11), red clay ten miles west of (1). (12), Diorite, the rock which is most common in the above locality.

Nos. (13) to (17) are from other points in Virginia: No. (13), is deep red clay from farm of Mr. J. Shelton, Lowesville, Nelson Co. No. (14) a dark gray clay from swamp on Rappahannock River in Stafford Co. No. (15), a gray sandy loam, near Williamsburg, James City Co. No. (16), a yellow clay, per Mr. F. P. Brent, Onancock Creek, Accomac Co. No. (17), white sea sand, from Virginia Beach, Princess Anne Co. The percentage of titanic oxide found in these respectively is as follows:

| Air-dried. | | Air-dried. | | Air-dried. | | Ignited |
|------------|------|------------|------|------------|------|---------|
| (1) | (2) | (7) | (8) | (13) | (14) | |
| 5.42 | 1.45 | 0.77 | 2.86 | 1.87 | 0.88 | |

Ind. No. (25) a gray clay, per Dr. W. A. Noyes,* Terra Haute, Ind. No. (26), a deep orange clay sub-soil per Prof. C. E. Wait, Knoxville, Tenu. No. (27), a pinkish china clay from a 10-foot seam, and No. (28), a coarse gray clay from an 18 foot seam, both per Mr. W. R. Searcy, Tuscaloosa, Ala. No. (29), a heavy gray clay, per Mr. A. P. Wright, River bottom soil, Bolivar Co., Miss. No. (30), light red surface loam and No. (31), a gray sub-soil, both per Mr. Thos. Dunnington, Pine Bluff, Ark. No. (32), a brown clay, 6 feet deep, per Prof. W. H. Echols, Rolla, Mo. No. (33), a pale gray loam, per Dr. F. W. Traphagen, Deer Lodge, Montana. No. (34), a gray alkaline soil, from Truckee Valley, Nevada. No. (35), a yellow surface clay, per Dr. Masser, Los Angeles, Cal. No. (36), a brown clay, 3 feet deep, per Prof. H. E. Storrs, Los Angeles, Cal. Nos. (37) to (40) were sent by Prof. E. W. Hilgard, Berkeley, Cal. No. (37), upland red loam Station No. 1226, from Yuba River near Smartsville. No. (38), yellow gray Mesa soil, Station No. 1281, from Chino Ranch Station, San Bernardino Co. No. (39), "Red Mountain Land," Station No. 188, from a vineyard in Sonora Co. No. (40), a red loam, Station No. 1110, Thermolite Colony, Butte Co.

The percentage of titanic oxide found in these respectively is as follows:

| Air-dried. | | Ignited. | | Air-dried. | | Ignited. | | Air-dried. | | Ignited. | |
|------------|------|----------|------|------------|------|----------|------|------------|------|----------|------|
| (18) | 0.83 | | 0.88 | (26) | 0.46 | | 0.50 | (34) | 0.57 | | |
| (19) | 0.88 | | 0.98 | (27) | 1.01 | | 1.12 | (35) | 0.72 | | 0.82 |
| (20) | 1.17 | | 1.26 | (28) | 0.67 | | 0.76 | (36) | 0.49 | | 0.53 |
| (21) | 0.55 | | 0.58 | (29) | 0.46 | | 0.61 | (37) | 0.77 | | 0.85 |
| (22) | 0.49 | | 0.55 | (30) | 0.52 | | 0.62 | (38) | 0.72 | | 0.75 |
| (23) | 0.57 | | 0.61 | (31) | 0.60 | | 0.62 | (39) | 4.93 | | 6.05 |
| (24) | 0.71 | | 0.76 | (32) | 0.57 | | 0.65 | (40) | 0.90 | | 0.97 |
| (25) | 0.58 | | 0.62 | (33) | 0.44 | | 0.50 | Average | | 0.85 | 0.98 |

Nos. (41) to (45) are from Oceanica and Asia. Nos. (41) to (45) were sent by Prof. A. B. Lyons, Oahu College, Hawaii, Sandwich Islands. No. (41), a dark brown loam. No. (42), a yellow brown loam. No. (43), a yellow brown loam. No. (44), a brown clay. No. (45), a gray brown loam. No. (46), a light gray china clay and No. (47), a gray china clay, both per Miss Mildred Page, Tokio, Japan. No. (48), a piece of a gray brick from the Great Wall of China, per Rev. Collins Denny. No. (49), a pink clay and No. (50), a yellow loam subsoil from the bank of the Yellow River, and No. (51) a fine yellow silt from the old bank of the Yellow River. The three last specimens were sent by Dr. Edgar Woods, Tsing-Kiang-Pu, China. No. (52), light red pottery, from Kurrachee, Sind, India. No.

* Dr. Noyes writes that he has recently found from .5 to 4 per cent of titanic oxide in a number of minerals from Arkansas.

(53), dark brown crucible clay and No. (54) red furnace clay; both from Tumkur, India. The three last specimens were sent by H. B. M's Secretary for India. No. (55), gray loam from the shore of the Sea of Galilee, Palestine, per Rev. Collins Denny, of Vanderbilt University.

The percentage of titanite oxide found in these respectively is given below, and in making an average the specimens (41) to (45) are counted as one.

| | Air-dried. | Ignited. | | Air-dried. | Ignited. | | Air-dried. | Ignited. |
|------|------------|----------|------|------------|----------|---------|------------|----------|
| (41) | 4.48 | 5.25 | (47) | 0.40 | 0.50 | (53) | 0.62 | 0.73 |
| (42) | 2.40 | 3.37 | (48) | 0.55 | 0.55 | (54) | 0.28 | 0.30 |
| (43) | 2.25 | 3.11 | (49) | 0.58 | 0.68 | (55) | 1.80 | (?) 1.90 |
| (44) | 4.00 | 4.64 | (50) | 0.60 | 0.65 | Average | 0.90 | 1.18 |
| (45) | 2.78 | 3.37 | (51) | 0.54 | 0.56 | | | |
| (46) | 0.70 | 0.80 | (52) | 0.69 | | | | |

Nos. (56) to (72) are soils from Europe.—Nos. (56) to (62), are from Russia and were sent by Prof. Nich, Menschutkin, Kaiser. University, St. Petersburg. No. (56) is a yellow sandy loam, "Souglinok," from Borovitsky, Novgorod. No. (57), dark gray loam, Prof. Docoutschaeff's type, "Solonetz" (barren black earth), Prilouky, Poltava. No. (58), brown gray loam, forest soil, Zenkovsky, Poltava. No. (59), dark gray loam, "Tschernosem," (black earth), Prilouki, Poltava. No. (60), sandy black earth, "Tschernosem," Zenkovetsky, Poltava. No. (61), black earth, "Tschernosem," Balashoff, Saratoff. No. (62), black earth, "Tschernosem," Zoubrilovka, Saratov. No. (63), white porcelain clay from Halle, Prussia. No. (64), white porcelain clay from St Yrienx near Limoges, France.

This wide distribution of titanite oxide naturally suggests the examination of the rocks themselves. I have so far been able to examine only the following typical rocks, the localities of which have furnished also the samples for analyses already published: (73), Trachyte, K hlsbrunnen. (74), Trachyte. (75), Trachyte, Drachenfels. (76), Hornblende andesite, Wolkenburg. These four were from the Siebengebirge. (77), Gabbro, Radauthal, Harzburg.* (78), Melaphyr, Ilmenau, Schneidem ller-berg. (79), Melaphyr, Plauenschen Grunde, near Dresden. (80), Nosean phonolite, Castle Olbr ck, Laacher See. These afford the following:

| | TiO ₂ mentioned in published analysis. | | TiO ₂ found. |
|------|---|--------------------|-------------------------|
| (73) | none | Zirkel, II, p. 181 | 0.22 |
| (74) | none | “ p. 182 | 0.86 |
| (75) | 0.38 | “ p. 181 | 0.64 |
| (76) | none | “ p. 212 | 1.14 |
| (77) | none | “ p. 116 | 0.10 |
| (78) | 0.89 | “ p. 55 | 1.01 |
| (79) | trace | Zirkel I, p. 584 | 0.36 |
| (80) | none | “ | 0.18 |
| | Average | | 0.56 |

While the frequent association of titanium with iron (as indicated by the color after ignition), in these soils points to menaccanite as a source of the titanite oxide; yet the considerable amount of this substance in some of the clays and rocks containing little iron suggests that it may also result from titanite which has been observed† to be widely distributed in igneous rocks.

In conclusion I desire to thank those who have assisted me in this work by supplying the desired specimens.

Sept., 1891.

ART. LIV.—*Notes on a Missouri Barite*; by C. LUEDEKING and H. A. WHEELER.

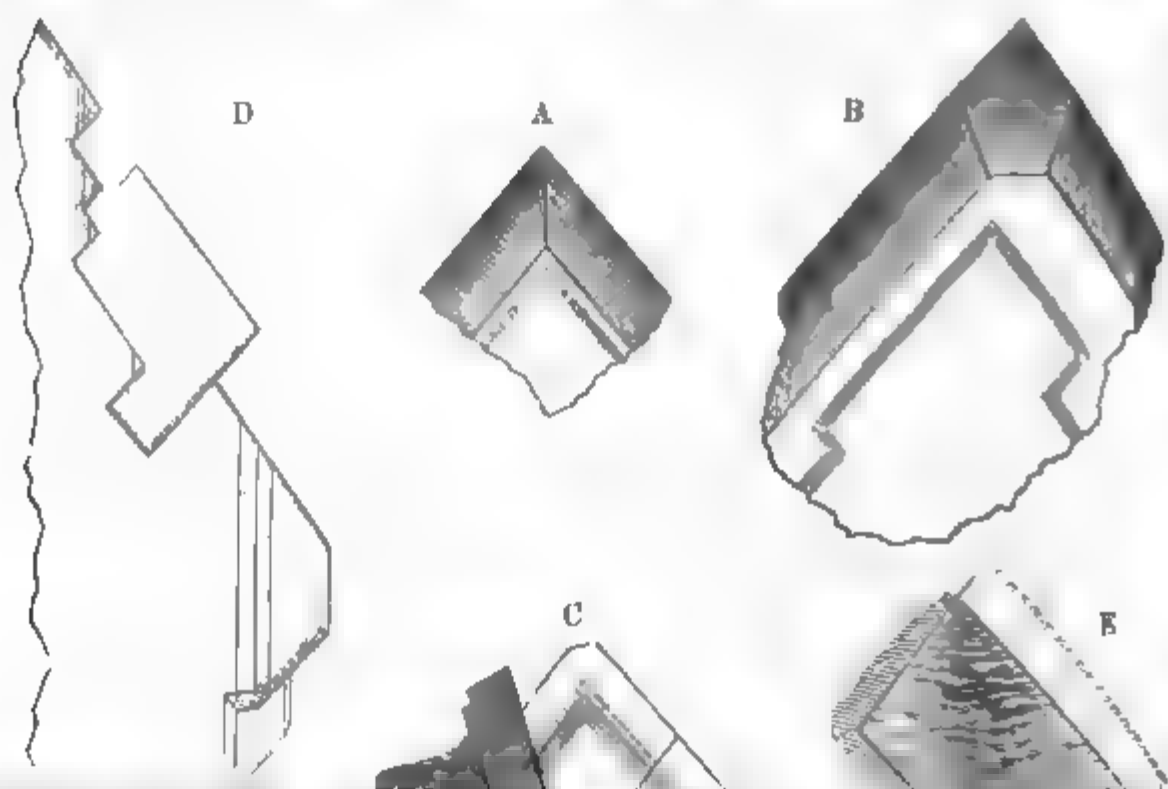
A VARIETY of barite is found in Pettis County, Mo., that presents peculiar chemical and crystallographic characteristics. It occurs in clusters of simple and compound crystals that individually are quite perfect and which vary in size from 10 to 200^{mm} in length by 1 to 30^{mm} in thickness and are of tabular habit. The peculiarity of the crystals is the occurrence of

*I find in Bischoff III, page 467: Gabbro from Rodanthal bei Steinbruch, contains TiO₂—1.75 per cent

† Dana's System of Mineralogy, p. 389.

white to yellowish thin bands in an otherwise normal colorless barite, and analysis shows that these bands consist of a mixture of the sulphates of barium and strontium with slight amounts of calcium and ammonium.

Two distinct types of the banded crystals occur, of which one type (A, B) is found near Smithton, while the other type (C, D, E) is found at Sedalia, both localities being within seven miles of each other in Pettis Co., Mo. They occur in clay associated with galena in the lead-bearing magnesia limestone series of Missouri, which latter in that locality usually has barite very abundantly associated with the lead ores.



and persistently occurs in all the Smithton specimens that have been examined in relatively the same position with respect to the development of the crystal, whether large or small in size. The white coating that fringes the crystals is usually superficial, as it most frequently is found to be underlaid by a clear wine-colored ground mass; in some crystals however the opaque matter entirely replaces this latter.

The simple tabular crystal C has a clear colorless interior inclosed within a subtransparent wine-colored band 1.5^{mm} in width, that is adjoined by a white opaque band 0.5^{mm} in width; both of these bands are parallel to the prismatic faces as likewise the cleavage crack shown in the drawing. The outer edge of this crystal is transparent but has the slight bluish tinge indicative of strontium.

The twinned group of crystals shown in D have the edges of the right rhombic prism modified by either one, two or three modifications of the macrodome, and truncated as usual by the basal pinacoid; in this type only the faces of the prism are coated with the opaque white barite, the rest of the material consisting of clear colorless and essentially pure barite. The thickness of this coating is variable on different faces of the prism, being appreciably greater on the upper face in some and on the lower face in other crystals and varying from 0.2 to 2.2^{mm} in thickness; but in every case the opaque barite is only found on the prismatic faces.

The crystal E is a member of the same cluster of crystals from which D was taken. It consists of only the simple rhombic prism which is thinly fringed with white barite, but on one of the basal faces is a series of irregular lines of a fine white pulverulent material that suggests the deposition of a sediment on an inclined surface. A subsequent deposition of clear barite has preserved this pulverulent matter *in situ*.

An analysis of the white barite showed it to be somewhat variable in composition, but the following gives its general character.

| | |
|------------------------------|----------------|
| Barium sulphate | 87.2 per cent. |
| Strontium sulphate | 10.9 “ |
| Calcium sulphate | 0.2 “ |
| Ammonium sulphate | 0.2 “ |
| Water | 2.4 “ |
| | <hr/> |
| | 100.9 |

The occurrence of ammonium sulphate in barite is quite novel. The amount seems to be somewhat greater in the yellow than in the white variety by about 0.1 per cent and is

always very small, and occasionally scarcely appreciable. The isomorphism of ammonium sulphate, mascagnite, with barite is worthy of notice.

When the powdered white or yellow material is heated in a closed tube an appreciable sublimate of ammonium salts is obtained and at the same time an empyreumatic odor is noticeable. It was thought that perhaps the sublimate might be due to the decomposition of nitrogenous organic matter by the heat employed. That this was not the case was proved by the fact that it was possible by cold extraction with water to obtain very decided Nessler reactions for ammonia. It is therefore assumed by the writers that the ammonium occurs as mascagnite in association with the other sulphates.

Specimens of these Pettis Co. barites were sent to Mr. F. W. Clarke, of the chemical department of the U. S. Geological Survey, and were kindly examined by Dr. W. F. Hillebrand, who confirms the presence of ammonia. Mr. J. S. Diller, of the U. S. Geological Survey, also examined them microscopically and finds that the opacity is probably due to the presence of myriads of cavities which seem to be filled with air.

We wish to herewith express our thanks to these gentlemen, as well as also to Dr. Hambach of St. Louis and Mr. Sampson of Sedalia for samples furnished.

ART. LV.—*The Contraction of Molten Rock*; by C. BARUS.

AT the request of Mr. Clarence King I made the following



contraction of the originally liquid mass were found to be, for instance (fourth series): 0.0771 at 1421°, 0.0760 at 1388°, 0.0730 at 1319°, 0.0721 at 1305°, 0.0661 (sticky) at 1190°, 0.0652 (very sticky) at 1163°, 0.0628 at 1112°, falling off eventually to 0.0285 at 1093°, 0.0223 at 914°, 0.0202 at 855°, etc. Conversely since sudden bulk contraction is a criterion for solidifying point, these results lead to sharp values for this datum.

Finally, the density of the original (cold) rock was 3.0178 (four measurements) and the density of the (cold) glass after fusion 2.717 (three measurements). Now I have been at considerable pains to show that the chemical equilibrium of a substance (solid or liquid) varies with pressure. Since, therefore, the glass obtained by fusion is permanently homogeneous in character, structural rock texture is due to pressure; i. e. pressure induces a redistribution of molecules, such that the smallest specific volume possible under the given conditions may result. Hence it is permissible to conceive a solution-fusion mechanism, in virtue of which, by the mere act of pressure, volume changes of an order of even 13 per cent may present themselves.

ART. LVI.—*Notes on Michigan Minerals* ;* by A. C. LANE,
H. F. KELLER and F. F. SHARPLESS.

Contents: 1. CHLORITOID [L. and K.] § 1. Historical introduction. 2. Summary of results. 3. Physical characters. 4. Chemical analysis. 5. Paragenesis. 6. Comparison with previous results.

2. GRÜNERITE [L. and S.] § 1. Historical introduction. 2. Physical characters, 3. Chemical characters. 4. Comparison with other ferromagnesian monoclinic amphiboles.

3. RIEBECKITE [L.] § 1. Occurrence and optical character.

1. CHLORITOID.

§ 1. This mineral has been known to occur in the Upper peninsula of Michigan for some years. It was first described, so far as we know, by Wadsworth† as occurring at Humboldt. It may be found about one thousand feet S. of the station of the D. S. S. and A. R. R., and occurs in scales 2^{mm} to 4^{mm} broad. It also occurs at points east and west in the same range, e. g. the Fitch Mine, S. 24, T. 47, R. 28, and from S. 29, T. 47, R. 26. Recently we have found it, in dark green

* From the laboratory of the Michigan Geological Survey, with the permission of M. E. Wadsworth, State Geologist.

† Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., vol. vii, 1880, p. 45.

plates several centimeters broad and up to 4^{mm} thick at the Champion Iron Mine. As it was so very large, not very impure, and extremely like the masonite from Natick village, Warwick township, R. I., it seemed worth while to examine it both chemically and optically. The results have brought out some new facts, which we feel justified in giving now, since previous data have been neither complete nor accordant, even though we hope to continue our investigations into the chloritoid group.

§ 2. We may summarize our results as follows. All the Michigan chloritoids, as well as the masonite, a chloritoid from Pregratten, one from Leeds, Canada, and one from the Apennines, appear to be optically the same. They have the usual trichroism and are pronouncedly triclinic. The axis of mean elasticity (β) is inclined some 20° to the basis (001), so that of the twin lamellæ parallel to the basis, which commonly occur in three sets, that one has the greatest angle of extinction which is most blue in color. The horizontal dispersion is strong. Fig. 1 shows the lateral cleavages, and a stereographic projection on the basis of the orientation of the optical axes.

All the chloritoids that we have tested, i. e. those from Champion, Pregratten and Natick contain constitutional alkali. In this respect, as otherwise in qualitative composition they resemble hornblendes of like pleochroism. Ottrelite from Ottrez seems to be optically as well as chemically different, and less pleochroic.



§ 3. The detailed description of the Champion chloritoid is as follows: H. 65. Sp. G 3.552. Cleavage basal, perfect, but often warped.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 65^{\circ} \cdot 1 \quad [\text{P.E.} = 0^{\circ} \cdot 088] \\
 tpm &= 57^{\circ} \cdot 3 \\
 tpb &= 57^{\circ} \cdot 6 \quad [\text{P.E.} = 0^{\circ} \cdot 374] \\
 p : t \text{ (? the best cleavage)} &= 80^{\circ} \frac{1}{2} \pm 2^{\circ} \frac{1}{2} \text{ (cleavage faces)} \\
 : b ? &= 83 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ} + \frac{4}{7}^{\circ} \quad \text{“} \quad \text{“} \\
 : m ? &= 84^{\circ} + \frac{10}{10} \quad \text{“} \quad \text{“}
 \end{aligned}$$

These angles from the basis to the lateral cleavage were taken with a reflection goniometer. The lateral faces gave only a “schimmer.”

The sense of the angle from p to t , m and b , is still uncertain, i. e. it is possible, though not probable, that one or more of them may be on the other side of p . The angle from the negative extinction to the trace of b , in basal sections, is 14° [P.E. = $0^{\circ} \cdot 42$]. The angle from the positive extinction to the trace of t should be, by calculation 11° . Certain observations give $12^{\circ} \cdot 3$. The directions of extinction in basal cleavage fragments vary from being nearly parallel to the trace of t , to being nearly perpendicular to the trace of b , which last position agrees best with the observations of previous writers. This variation is doubtless due to superposed twinned lamellæ. The thinner fragments which have least signs of twinning, i. e. sharpest extinctions and purest pleochroism, give an extinction angle about as drawn.

For t , i. e. in cleavage bits that have a strong pleochroism, blue to yellow, and appear to be parallel to t , the extinction angle against the trace of p averages $18^{\circ} \cdot 6$, but there is a strong dispersion of the extinction; $\text{ex. } \rho < \text{ex. } v$. Values as high as 21° occur often. Such cleavage fragments are very frequent.

In cleavage bits that are apparently parallel to b , and have a pleochroism from green to yellow, the extinction angle is almost inappreciable. A section artificially cut nearly perpendicular to p and parallel to m (probably) gave an extinction angle of 8° . The best cleavage follows t , the next b , a very poor one m , and there seem to be traces of a cleavage perpendicular to b .

The refraction by the de Chaulnes method is about 1.75, the bi-refraction, judging from the brightest polarization colors, about 0.007, not above that of quartz. [According to Lacroix it is 0.015, but doubtless it varies with the ratio of Mg : Fe.]

In convergent light the positive acute bisectrix emerges doubly obliquely, i. e. so that when the cross is formed, neither arm passes exactly through the center of the field of view.

The arm corresponding to the plane $\gamma\beta$ lies nearest the center. The *real* obliquity of γ appears to be about 17° . The direction of γ from the center of the field of view, i. e. the normal to p , makes an angle of about 150° with the direction of β ; i. e. $\gamma p \beta = 150^\circ$ circa. The optical angle does not appear large. [According to Lacroix it is 45° .]

From the double obliquity of the axial image it follows that the position of formation of a cross by closing in of the hyperbolas, which occurs approximately when β is in the direction of one of the principal planes of the nicols, will *not* be a position of extinction. The angle to be turned varies but is always noticeable. The formation of the cross is almost exactly parallel to the trace of z , and makes an angle against the direction of extinction of from 8° to 11° . The axial image is of course liable to disturbance from the twinning.

The direction of γ from the normal to p also seems to make an angle of about 80° with the trace of b , (in the sense opposite to that of the angle bt .)

These data harmonize fairly, but not absolutely, and it must be remembered that the directions of extinction do not pass exactly through γ . By *every* indication, however, γ lies within the small circle marking its position.

The pleochroism is as usual:— γ , yellow; β , blue, (not so far as I have noticed reddish); α , green. This so far as color is concerned is precisely that of certain hornblende, approaching glaucophane, which occurs in the crystalline schists and has a cellular structure (e. g. specimen No. 11270 of the Mich. Geol. Survey.) The pleochroism of such hornblende has also been noted by Lacroix. Moreover, such hornblendes like chloritoid contain alkalis as well as Fe, Mg, Al, Fe, and Si.

| | | Mol. ratio. |
|--------------------------------------|-------|-------------|
| SiO ₂ | 24.29 | .4048 |
| TiO ₂ | 0.28 | .0035 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 34.00 | .3333 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | 10.55 | .0659 |
| FeO | 20.51 | .2850 |
| MnO | trace | — |
| MgO | 1.29 | .0430 |
| CaO | 0.61 | .0152 |
| K ₂ O | 0.97 | .0103 |
| Na ₂ O | 0.35 | .0059 |
| H ₂ O | 6.75 | .3744 |
| Sum 99.60 | | |

From these figures we deduce the formula $H_{10}Fe_7Al_{11}Si_{10}O_{100}$ or $8H_2O \cdot 7FeO \cdot 8Al_2O_3 \cdot 8SiO_2$, which is nearly identical with that now generally accepted for *sismondine*.* It will be observed, however, that the composition of our mineral, as we have determined it, differs from the published analyses of the latter in two respects: the iron is largely in the ferric condition, and alkalis occur in notable quantity. Since the microscopic examination of the material revealed only traces of *sericite*, and the magnetite had been carefully extracted with the magnet, it is evident that the ferric oxide as well as the alkalis are essential constituents of this chloritoid. The ferric oxide without doubt replaces part of the alumina, while the alkalis, it may be assumed, are substitutes for some of the hydroxyl-water. We have reason to believe that alkalis have been overlooked in many of the former analyses of chloritoid and the allied species. An examination of the *masonite* from Natick, for instance, showed them to be present to upwards of two per cent—the soda predominating—and a qualitative test disclosed small amounts of both potash and soda in the *Pregratten* occurrence. The titanitic acid in our analysis was doubtless contributed by a slight admixture of *ilmenite* or *rutile*.

§ 5. Now, comparing our data with those generally given, we find that all authorities agree,—first, in the pleochroism; secondly, that γ is the positive acute bisectrix; thirdly, that there is a marked dispersion, $\rho < \nu$. Lacroix also mentions the horizontal dispersion. There is a decided difference, however, as to the direction of the axes of elasticity, γ , β and α . It is perhaps worth noting that in Rosenbusch's "Microscopic Physiography" there is a statement on page 494, that in *masonite* the pleochroism of α is blue and β green. This is

* Groth, Tabell. Uebersicht, 3 ed., p. 118.

not true and we are told to strike it out in the errata, but the statement may have arisen from the fact that β is at a much greater angle to the basal cleavage than α , as we believe that Sanger was still at work on the chloritoids when he was interrupted by his last illness, and never put his work in final shape. For, as we have seen in our material, sections which show a change from blue to yellow are those which have the greatest extinction, whereas according to the orientation given in the *Physiography* they should have no angle of extinction. The ottrelite from Ottrez, however, shows no marked difference of color in the different twin lamellæ parallel to the basis. Lacroix merely remarks that the extinctions are longitudinal but much dispersed.

The triclinic character of chloritoid seems assured, for: (1.) sections showing the pleochroism of β and γ , i. e. perpendicular to α , have a large and dispersed angle of extinction. Consequently if monoclinic, α must be parallel to the orthodiagonal \bar{b} , inasmuch as β and γ are inclined to the basal cleavage. Then lateral cleavage fragments showing the pleochroism from blue to yellow should also exhibit the directly perpendicular emergence of a negative bisectrix. This is not the case.

(2.) The lateral cleavages have not a corresponding symmetry.

(3.) In a monoclinic mineral the emergence of an axial image from a fragment due to a solitary perfect cleavage cannot be doubly oblique, but when the axial image is in the shape of a cross, one arm must pass through the center of the field of view. Or, which amounts to the same thing, when the mineral is in the position of extinction with parallel light, on changing to convergent light, without disturbing the mineral

schist famous for its large pseudomorphs of chlorite after garnet. The most abundant impurities are ilmenite and magnetite. Rutile, quartz and sericite are much less common. The analyzed material was examined under the microscope and, though not absolutely pure, was but slightly contaminated. The chloritoid is evidently averse to enclosing the brown mica and chlorite which also occur in the rock and they occur only at its very margins. All the Michigan chloritoids, so far as yet known, occur in altered arkoses or similar rocks, in one case both in the cement and in the basic and acid pebbles of a conglomerate.

2. GRÜNERITE [L. and S.]

§ 1. There is a peculiar amphibole, associated with certain iron ores of Lake Superior, which has been called both actinolite and anthophyllite. The latter name is due to Brush* who rightly recognized that it was essentially a silicate of Fe and Mg. He was followed by Brooks and Julien.† On the other hand Wichman‡ and Wadsworth§ rightly recognized that it was not orthorhombic, and referred it to actinolite. They were followed by Van Hise,|| while C. F. Wright in some of his work called the rock in which the amphibole occurs an anthophyllo-actinolite schist.

§ 2. It is in reality a ferro magnesian monoclinic amphibole, corresponding closely to the description of grünerite given by Lacroix¶. The strong refraction, like that of epidote, is noticeable, not only in the thin section but in the hand specimen, which has in consequence a peculiarly high silky luster. It is much greater than that of common blue green hornblende or actinolite, but less than that of garnet, and by de Chaulnes' method is 1.7. The bi-refraction is also strong. It varies in specimens from different localities, but is always stronger than that of actinolite and does not differ markedly from that of the talc into which the mineral readily changes, so that $\gamma - \alpha$ is always >0.030 .

The polysynthetic twinning parallel to (100) is commonly well marked, and with the strong optical powers distinguishes it at a glance from actinolite. A striation parallel to (10 $\bar{1}$), which should be more properly (001)**, is in one case developed. The mineral is colorless or slightly greenish or brownish, but

* Rep. Mich. Geol. Survey. I, p. 114.

† Idem. II, p. 24.

‡ Report Wis. Geol. Survey, III, p. 604.

§ Notes on the Geol. of the Iron and Copper Districts of Lake Superior, p. 47, *et passim*.

|| This Journal, xli, 1891, pp. 119 and 131.

¶ Lévy et Lacroix, "Minéraux des Roches," 1889.

** G. H. Williams, this Journal, xxxix, 1890, p. 352.

never more than faintly pleochroic. The angle from $c:x$ is between 15° and 20° . We endeavored to get the curve of the extinction angles in the prismatic zone, by revolving a fiber in Nachet's "cuve goniometrique" filled with mono-brom-naphthalin. Owing to the twinning the results were not satisfactory but in a general way the curve starting from a 0° extinction at 010 rose with an initial slope of about 0.7 until perpendicular to the cleavage faces the extinction was nearly 20° . After that it varied but little.

From these observations* and from the relative retardations of pinacoidal sections as manifested in their polarization, values of $-2V$ between 50° and 80° are deduced. The specific gravity of a specimen contaminated with quartz alone was found to be 3.2 to 3.3.

§ 3. The purest material at hand in sufficient bulk for analysis seemed to be some from the Champion Mine, after removing all the iron oxides from it. Unfortunately the crushing of a larger amount for analysis introduced unexpected impurities. The mineral is changed to talc in spots, and there was some entangled quartz though apparently not enough to account for the high percentage of SiO_2 .

The following analysis which was made on material first treated with the magnet to remove magnetite, and then briefly with HCl to remove martite and hematite, has therefore merely a qualitative value, but shows very clearly by the absence of lime that the mineral is not actinolite.

| | |
|-----------------|-------|
| SiO_2 | 76.32 |
| Al_2O_3 | 0.56 |
| FeO | 0.09 |

magnetite. Garnet, common blue green hornblende and brown mica are associated with it at times, marking stages of transition to ordinary hornblende schist.

§ 4. Judging from some slight variation in the optical properties of different occurrences, it seems likely that they are not chemically identical. We really need one general name for all monoclinic ferromagnesian amphiboles, without regard to varieties differing merely in the ratio of Mg:Fe. To amphiboles of this kind the names antholite, kupfferite, silfbergite, cummingtonite and grünerite have been applied. The first name, antholite, has been used also for anthophyllite and is confined by Dana to the very magnesian varieties. Typical kupfferite seems to be chromiferous, but otherwise practically the same as antholite, though its physical relations to the amphiboles have not been determined so far as we know. Silfbergite* has 8.39 per cent MnO, as well as 30.49 per cent FeO, and 8.74 per cent MgO. The name cummingtonite was given by Dewey† to a mineral from Cummington, Mass., which he supposed to be a kind of epidote. There are two minerals from Cummington which have been taken for it, as the original description is not very explicit. The one is a ferromagnesian monoclinic amphibole in truth, with only a mere trace of MnO, as we have personally found. This we also find to be very much like our mineral but larger and coarser. It agrees in luster, color, brittleness and specific weight, 3.2. The mineral associations, optical properties and frequent twinning are also similar. It has been analyzed by Smith and Brush.‡

The other mineral is a manganese mineral akin to rhodonite. It has been analyzed by Muir§ and the name is used in this latter sense by Rammelsberg, Groth and other writers up to the present day.

With grünerite|| there is physically the closest agreement. Grünerite however is supposed to contain only about 1 per cent MgO, and to be somewhat heavier, perhaps also more birefractive.

What the average ratio of Mg:Fe in the Michigan amphiboles under consideration is,—they are of widespread occurrence, and what their relations to kupfferite, etc., are questions that require work upon a large range of authentic material to settle. It seems indeed possible, in view of the tendency to repeated twinning parallel to 100, that anthophyllite may be

* This Journal, xxvi. p. 157.

† This Journal, viii. 1824, p. 59.

‡ This Journal, xvi, 1853, p. 48.

§ Thomson's Mineralogie, vol. i. p. 493.

|| The diaeresis which strictly should be over the *u* is dropped by Rammelsberg, Tschermak, Naumann, Zirkel, Groth and Chester, and sometimes by Lévy and Lacroix and Max Bauer, while Dana, Lapparent, Descloizeaux and Ramsay retain it.

due to such molecular or submicroscopic twinning, for such a structure would produce a rhombic symmetry. Then anthophyllite and grünerite would be related, as orthoclase (submicroscopic microcline) and albite, or the two kinds of natrolite.

Considering the unfortunate ambiguity of the word camingtonite, its hitherto more imperfect optical description, and the greater length of the word, it seems preferable to denote the allied Michigan amphiboles as grünerite, pending further investigation. Inasmuch as they are concomitants of the iron ores, it seems the more proper to lay stress on the $\text{Fe}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$ molecules.

3. RIEBECKITE OR CROCIDOLITE. [L.]

Our knowledge of this group of amphiboles is rapidly increasing, but it has not yet been so frequently observed that a new occurrence is devoid of interest. I have observed it as a secondary fibrous growth on the primary hornblende of a syenite.* It occurs much as those fibers do, that we often see in more basic rocks growing out from patches of uralite into the adjacent feldspar, and it is worth noting that uralite patches are often most bluish at the margin. The growths I have noticed answer precisely to those described by Cross,† and verify his observations, as I can testify from a personal examination of his sections, which he kindly afforded me. The vertical axis and orientation are parallel to those of the original hornblende, but the angle of the + extinction is very large, somewhere about 75° , above, to the front, so that as Cross notes the nearest extinction is on the other side of the vertical axis from that of common hornblende. The pleochroism is—

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

I. CHEMISTRY AND PHYSICS.

1. *On Two new Modifications of Sulphur*.—ENGEL has observed that if one volume of solution of sodium thiosulphate, saturated at the ordinary temperature, be poured with continual agitation into two volumes of a solution of hydrochloric acid, saturated at 25° – 30° and cooled to about 10° , sodium chloride is precipitated, and the resulting thiosulphuric acid is so stable that the liquid can be filtered. At first the filtrate is colorless, but it soon becomes yellow, the intensity of the color increasing gradually, and sulphurous oxide being evolved. If now, after the liquid has become deep yellow in color, but is still entirely transparent, it be agitated with its own volume of chloroform, the chloroform removes the yellow color; and on being allowed to evaporate, deposits orange-yellow crystals of sulphur, quite different from the octahedral variety. Friedel describes them as rhombohedral showing the cross and rings of uniaxial crystals in polarized light. The rhombohedron is very obtuse, pp (normal) $= 40^{\circ} 50'$. These crystals have a density of 2.135, greater than that of octahedral sulphur. At first they are transparent but in three or four hours they pass into an amorphous insoluble form. They fuse below 100° , passing into the pasty condition and becoming partially soluble in carbon disulphide. If, however, the solution of thiosulphuric acid in hydrochloric acid be allowed to stand, the sulphur separates as a yellow flocculent precipitate, completely soluble in water. The solution is yellow, but decomposes rapidly, yielding the ordinary pasty sulphur of the thiosulphates. The original precipitate also agglomerates and passes into the same insoluble form, without evolution of hydrogen sulphide. These varieties of sulphur are probably polymerized atomic forms.—*C. R.*, cxii, 866; *J. Chem. Soc.*, lx, 976, Sept. 1891.

G. F. B.

2. *Chemistry of the Carbon compounds or Organic Chemistry*; by VICTOR VON RICHTER, University of Breslau. Authorized translation by Edgar F. Smith, University of Pennsylvania. Second American from the Sixth German edition. 12mo, pp. 1040. Philadelphia, 1891. (P. Blakiston, Son & Co.).

The new edition of this excellent text-book will be very acceptable to students of Organic Chemistry. The introduction contains much new and valuable matter upon the later physical and chemical methods of fixing the mass as well as the structure of the molecule, the sections on stereochemical theories and the tautomeric theory being noteworthy. In the special part, Class I is devoted to the Fatty bodies or the Methane derivatives and Class II to the Benzene derivatives. The new edition shows a large introduction of new matter, the chapter on the carbohydrates having been re-written, the sections relating to the tri-, tetra- and penta-methylene series greatly enlarged, and the whole

brought up to date. Dr. Smith's translation is clear, accurate and in every way admirable. The volume as it now stands seems to us one of the best and most complete text-books in the English language. We regret sincerely the recent death of its distinguished author, who has done so much in his text-books to present the science of chemistry in a compact and yet comprehensive form.

G. F. R.

3. *A System of Inorganic Chemistry*; by WILLIAM RAMSAY, Ph.D., F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry in University College, London. 8vo, pp. xvi, 700. Philadelphia, 1891. (P. Blakiston, Son & Co.).—The system of classification adopted in this book is somewhat remarkable. "After a short historical preface the elements are considered in their order; next their compounds with the halogens, including the double halides; the oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides follow next, double oxides, such as sulphates, for example, being considered among the compounds of the simple oxides with the oxides of other elements; a few chapters are then occupied with the borides, carbides and silicides and the nitrides, phosphides, arsenides and antimonides; and in these the organo-metallic compounds, the double compounds of ammonia, and the cyanides are considered; while a short account is given of alloys and amalgams." Special chapters are appended treating of spectrum analysis and of the periodic law; the former chapter considering also the chemistry of the rare earths. Since the author tells us that "no systematic text-book has been written in English with the periodic arrangement of the elements as a basis," his attempt to supply this deficiency in the present volume has resulted in the above classification. He criticises as ancient and arbitrary the electrochemical line of demarcation between metals and non-metals, and says that too great importance has hitherto been assigned to the distinction between acid hydroxides and basic hydroxides. Moreover the

5. *Chapters on Electricity*: An introductory text-book for students in College; by SAMUEL SHELDON. pp. 351-452. New York, 1891. (Charles Collins and the Baker & Taylor Co.).—These chapters on Electricity are reprinted from the new (fourth) revised edition of Olmsted's Natural Philosophy. They give a concise and systematic statement of the most essential principles and phenomena in the subjects of Electricity and Magnetism as now understood. The treatment is of necessity very brief but if supplemented by the illustrations and explanations of the classroom, the book should give the average student a satisfactory elementary knowledge of his subject.

6. *Apparent change in electrochemical equivalent of copper*.—Certain observers have maintained that the electrochemical equivalent of copper changes with the density of the current per square millimeter of the surface of the electrodes. J. VANNI shows that the conditions of acidity of the bath produce the discordant results obtained by previous observers. When sulphuric acid is present in excess, the electrodes are attacked. By making a normal solution with a definite proportion of free sulphuric acid, concordant results can be obtained with a copper voltameter. The author gives results of his experiments and shows that the deposition of copper can be employed with great exactness to measure electrical currents if the proper care is taken in forming a normal solution without too much acidity.—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, No. 10, 1891, p. 214, 221. J. T.

7. *Electrolytic generation of Gas in a closed space*.—M. CHABRY of the Société de Biologie has succeeded in obtaining by this means a pressure of 1200 atmospheres. The electrolyzed liquid was a 25 per cent soda solution. The current had a strength of $1\frac{1}{2}$ amperes and was very constant during the experiment.—*Nature*, Oct. 15, 1891. J. T.

8. *Upon the damping of electrical oscillations*.—An important paper on this subject has been written by V. BJERKNES. The author discusses the mathematical theory and shows that the multiple resonance discovered by Sarasin and de la Rive can be explained by the phenomena of damping. Their results are therefore in accord with the experiments of Hertz. The author expresses his obligations to the work of Poincaré (*Électricité et Optique*, II, Paris, 1891).—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, No. 9, 1891, pp. 74-101. J. T.

9. *Velocity of Electrical waves in solid insulators*.—AVONS and RUBENS in a previous article (*Wied. Ann.*, vol. xlii, p. 582, 1891), described a method of measuring electrical waves in dielectrics, which was an extension of Hertz's method. Its peculiarity consisted in the employment of a bolometer instead of an electric spark for the observation of maxima and minima of oscillations. They have extended their work to an investigation of Maxwell's law connecting the dielectric constant with the index of refraction of the dielectric, and find a very satisfactory agreement between his theory and their experiments. Maxwell's

law is $n^2 = \mu$ where n = index of refraction and μ = dielectric constant.

The results of the authors are embodied in the following table (λ is wave length).

| Dielectric. | μ | $\sqrt{\mu}$ | n $\lambda = 6m$ | n $\lambda = 6 \cdot 10^{-7}m$ |
|------------------------|-------|--------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Fluid paraffine..... | 1.98 | 1.41 | 1.47 } | 1.46 |
| Cooling paraffine..... | 2.08 | 1.44 | 1.48 { | bis |
| Solid paraffine..... | 1.95 | 1.40 | 1.43 | 1.53 |
| Glass I..... | 5.37 | 2.32 | 2.33 | 1.51 |
| Glass II..... | 5.90 | 2.43 | 2.49 | 1.53 |
| Castor oil..... | 4.67 | 2.16 | 2.05 | 1.48 |
| Olive oil..... | 3.07 | 1.75 | 1.77 | 1.47 |
| Xylol..... | 2.35 | 1.53 | 1.50 | 1.49 |
| Petroleum..... | 2.07 | 1.44 | 1.40 | 1.45 |

—*Ann. der Physik und Chemie*, No. 10, 1891, pp. 206–213.

J. T.

II. GEOLOGY.

1. *On the British Earthquakes of 1889*; by C. DAVISON, of King Edward's High School, Birmingham, (*Geol. Mag.*, viii, 1891.)
—The more important conclusions of Prof. Davison's paper are presented in the following citations from pages 10, 20 and 28.

I believe we may, with some probability, conclude: (1) that the Edinburgh earthquake was caused by a slip of the fault marked BB on the map, at a spot vertically below the position indicated for the epicentrum, and therefore not far from the middle of the fault, where, probably, the throw is a maximum and where earthquake-action has been most frequent or most intense; (2) that, on account of the simple character and short duration of the disturbance, the horizontal length of the fault

Now, the seismographic records recently obtained by Prof. Milne and others in Japan show that earthquakes usually begin with a series of tremors very small in amplitude and very rapid in period, from six to eight occurring every second, but becoming slower before the shock takes place. These may last for many seconds or even several minutes. Following, and continuous with them, come the sensible vibrations, of larger amplitude and longer period, about three to five occurring in every second. One or more of these, attaining a still greater amplitude and longer period, of one or two seconds each, constitute what are generally known as the principal shock or shocks. The earthquake closes with vibrations of smaller amplitude, but which have a period so long that no record of them can be obtained. The earliest tremors, on the other hand, are not registered on account of the smallness of their amplitude, and, in all probability, as Prof. Milne suggests, the "minute movements which have been recorded are the continuation of still smaller and more rapid movements which . . . have never yet been rendered visible." It is to these supposed rapid vibrations which form the front portion of an advancing earthquake, that Prof. Milne attributes the origin of the earthquake-sounds. We may conclude from these observations that, initially at any rate, the period of the vibrations increases and decreases with the amplitude.

Now, from different parts of the area over which a fault-slip takes place, there must proceed vibrations differing greatly in amplitude, and therefore also in period. From the central portions of the slip-area will come, as a rule, the vibrations of largest amplitude and longest period; while, from the margins there will proceed minute vibrations of a period so short that they may be perceptible only as sound. The position of the line separating the marginal and central parts of the slip-area will depend only on the amplitude of the vibrations corresponding to the period of the lowest sound that can be heard; it will not at all depend on the amount of the slip at the center of the area, *i. e.* it will be independent of the *intensity* of the shock.—p. 10. This theory explains (1) the fact that the sound-area is not concentric with the disturbed area, and the sound-focus is nearer the surface than the rest of the seismic focus; (2) the fact that, in great earthquakes, the sounds are heard only within a comparatively small area immediately surrounding the epicentrum.—pp. 20, 21.

With one possible exception (that of Ben Nevis), the earthquakes of 1889 are typical examples of British shocks—they occurred in districts where earthquakes are rarely felt, and their disturbed areas are circular or only slightly elliptical in form. Turning to a more distinctly seismic area, Switzerland for example, we find that the disturbed areas are often extremely elongated, the longer axes being parallel to those of the neighboring Alpine chain; earthquakes are more frequent, their intensity, as a rule, is greater, and much larger areas are disturbed. Different stages in the geological history of a district are

characterized by different kinds of earthquakes. The Alpine system is not yet old, fault-formation is still in progress, and the fault-slips are long and frequently recurring. In Great Britain, we meet with a later stage. Fault-formation in our seismic area is more advanced, and slipping takes place so slowly and over distances so short, that our earthquakes are rare and the areas disturbed by them more or less circular in form.

Every stage in the process, however, requires investigation, and that of which our British earthquakes are witness is certainly deserving of attentive study. Unattractive though it may be at first sight, the epoch immediately preceding the death of a mountain-chain, is at least as interesting to the geologist as the more vigorous periods of origin and growth.—pp. 28, 29.

2. *On the Formation of Graphite in Contact-metamorphism.*—Graphite is found naturally in various Archean rocks. Generally it occurs in beds or pockets, in gneiss, mica slate, clay slate, granular limestone, etc.; whence is obtained most of that used in the arts. Besides this, a second mode of occurrence of graphite, which is of great interest, is that in which in certain Archean rocks it replaces either wholly or partially, the mica. Graphite-mica-schists are known, and also graphite-gneisses, in which the scales of mica in ordinary mica-schists and gneisses are partly or wholly replaced by scales of graphite; and a schistose rock called graphite-schist exists which consists substantially of graphite and quartz. Even more noteworthy is the occurrence of graphite scales in granite, in place of the usual mica scales. Beck and Luzi have now observed the occurrence of beautifully crystallized graphite in strata which have been metamorphosed by contact with eruptive rocks, and have proved that these graphite crystals have originated in the amorphous coaly substance existing originally in the clay slates and quartzose schists. In the Piller and Kressna sections in Saxony, the mica of

tered schists not being over 0.001 mm. in diameter. Moreover, well defined single graphite crystals were observed having a hexagonal contour. The Röhrsdorf quartzite is still richer in graphite, and it is more beautifully crystallized. The rock itself is seen under a magnifier to consist essentially of a mixture of quartz and graphite, the latter feeling greasy to the touch and giving a metallic streak. Some of the crystals were 0.3 mm. in diameter. On chemical analysis, the chistolite graphite gave 88.84 per cent carbon and 0.21 per cent. hydrogen; the quartzite-graphite 99.94 per cent carbon and 0.05 per cent hydrogen. In amount the quartzite contains about 2 per cent of the graphite, its density being from 2.62 to 2.637.—*Ber. Berl. Chem. Ges.*, xiv, 1884, June, 1891.

G. F. B.

3. *Geological Survey of Alabama*, E. A. SMITH, State Geologist. *Report on the Coal Measures of the Plateau region of Alabama*, by HENRY McCALLEY, including a report on the *Coal Measures of Blount County*, by A. M. GIBSON. 238 pp. 8vo, with a map of the Coal-fields and two geological sections across the Plateau region.—The Coal-measures of all the Plateau region, about 4500 square miles in area, are here described except those of the Warrior Coal-field which were reported upon in 1886. The region is one of broad gentle undulations in the bedding, and is divided by wall-sided valleys which are cut down to the Subcarboniferous and inferior strata. The coal beds belong for the larger part to the lower part of the coal-measures and the most productive bed, the Main Etna, 2 to 5 feet thick, is below the Lower Conglomerate or Millstone Grit. Under this there are four other beds separated by 20 to 100 feet of shale. The Subcarboniferous beds, below the coal-measures, consist of a limestone, the probable equivalent of the Chester group, resting on shales and sandstone, in all perhaps 1000 feet in thickness, and underneath these, about 400 feet of cherty or siliceous limestones. All there is of Devonian in Alabama is a stratum of Black shale not over 10 or 15 feet thick.

4. *Geological Survey of Missouri, Bulletin No. 5*, ARTHUR WINSLOW, State Geologist. 86 pp., 8vo.—This Report contains a paper by ERASMUS HAWORTH, on the age and origin of the crystalline rocks of Missouri, and another by G. E. LADD, on the clays and building stones of certain western central counties tributary to Kansas City. Mr. Haworth concludes that the rocks of the iron region, granite and "porphyry," are of igneous origin, and this makes the iron ore deposits also igneous. As stated in the Preface to the Report, Pumpelly, in his survey of the region, decided that the rocks and ore were metamorphic.

5. *Geological Survey of Georgia. First Report of Progress, 1890-91*, by L. W. SPENCER, State Geologist. 128 pp. 8vo.—This report, after observations on the topography of the State, treats of the Cretaceous and Tertiary formations, presents briefer notes on the older strata, and gives some account of phosphate beds and other mineral materials of economic value.

6. *Geological facts on Grand River, Labrador*; by ARTHUR CARY. The following note is to be added to the sentence on p. 421 (line 14 from top) in the November number.

"Our measurements proving worthless on account of the difficulties under which they were taken, the smallest estimate made by the party on the spot was given. A measurement since made by Mr. Henry G. Bryant, of Philadelphia, makes the height of the fall 316 feet, from which the height of the basin wall will not much vary."

The adjective "gneissic" in line 14 of p. 420 should be erased, as the nature of the rock was not positively determined.

7. *Index to the known Fossil Insects of the World, including Myriapods and Arachnids*; by S. H. SCUDDER. Bull. U. S. Geol. Surv., No. 71. 744 pp. Washington, 1891.—Contains exact references, arranged chronologically under each species, to all the scientific publications where fossil insects are described and figured, with the locality and horizon of each. The catalogue is divided into the sections, Paleozoic, Mesozoic, and Cenozoic, and the classes and species appear alphabetically under the various orders. An index of generic names completes the work.

8. *Stones for Building and Decoration*; by GEORGE P. MERRILL. 458 pp., 8vo. New York, 1891. (John Wiley & Sons).—There are few subjects of more general interest and about which it is at the same time more difficult to obtain precise scientific information than that of Building Stones. Mr. Merrill's excellent volume, therefore, fills an important gap and should be highly valued by a wide range of readers. The book is divided into four parts of which the first gives a concise account of the minerals entering into building stones, the physical and chemical properties of the stones and their distribution in the United States. The second part, comprising the greater part of the volume (pp. 45-312), takes up in succession the various kinds of

a detailed description of the manganese deposits of Arkansas, followed by those of other parts of the country. The final chapter deals with the origin, and chemical and geological relations of manganese deposits. An examination of the volume shows that the author has done his work with great thoroughness and the large amount of new matter relative to hitherto little known deposits with the numerous analyses, etc., give the work a high value in addition to that which it has as a convenient digest of what was before known on the subject.

III. BOTANY.

1. *Botanic Gardens in the Equatorial Belt and in the South Seas.* (Fifth paper.)—In all the gardens hitherto referred to in this series, it is not unusual to meet with plants from different parts of Japan. The southern portions of Japan have contributed plants which thrive, or, at least, can be made to grow even in the warmer gardens of the tropics, while in the hill gardens of the tropics are found certain species from the colder regions of the Empire. It may therefore not be out of place for this series to close with a short sketch of a visit to Japan on my way home. The spring was far enough advanced to give me a glimpse of some of the most interesting vernal species, but not sufficiently so to present the *Paeonies*, one of the specialties of Japan, at their best.

From Woosung it is a run of less than two days to the straits at Shimonoseki, where the ship enters the Inland Sea. The descriptions of this famous sheet of water do not do justice to its extraordinary picturesqueness. The shores and the water, with their ever changing scenes of interest, keep every passenger attentively employed in forming contrasts between these and similar scenes in other countries. It was worthy of note that travelers who had passed many times over this sea, did not appear to have exhausted their enthusiasm in regard to its beauty in any way. The older travelers were the most eager to point out to the novices the more striking features and combinations.

On the northern shore, we could frequently see the preparations made for extending the railroad, and catch now and then a view of a rigid line of rail contrasting strangely with the general air of the place. There is absolutely nothing which can fairly be called picturesque in or around the railroad stations,—except the people.

The port of Kobe is reached in twenty hours from the southern entrance to the sea. Hyogo, or Hiogo (pronounced by the natives almost as if written Shyogo), lies on the opposite side of the river, Minato-gawa, and is the native part of the double town. Together, the two towns occupy about three miles along the shore and are alike fortunate in having a charming range of hills behind to increase their attractiveness. The tourist loses no time in leaving his ship for the walk or the jinrickisha ride up the

most easily accessible of these hills, and here the native vegetation and cultivated land are on every side. Bright green fields of barley and golden fields of rape-plants appear as if planted solely for decorative purposes, so completely do they adjust themselves to the tone of the landscape. The angular conifers seem far more irregular and picturesque than even the most contorted on our Atlantic coast. It is instructive to correct, or at least check, this impression by a strict comparison of photographs of trees having somewhat similar port. On the Maine coast one can find specimens of *Pinus rigida* and even battered examples of *Pinus Strobus* which are quite as grotesque as any which grow naturally in Japan, but it is out of the question to find in America miles after miles of trees which do not regard the proprieties of growth. And further, in Japan, when by the skillful lopping off of a branch here or there, the grotesque effect can be heightened in a tree near a dwelling, or plainly in sight of one, such artistic pruning is pretty apt to be done.

It may be said once for all that the Japanese give a naturalist to understand that he is heartily welcome to examine their plants to any extent, and even the poorest classes take pleasure in affording such information regarding their plants as may be in their power. All are very lenient in regard to what might strictly be called trespassing on private grounds. Time did not permit me to visit any of the gardens in Kobe, for it was desirable to reach Tokio in the height of the Cherry-blossom season, then so close at hand. Reserving the railroad ride for another occasion, we went by steamer to Yokohama, the principal port of Japan, and did not again arrive in the vicinity of Kobe until some weeks after. By that time the spring transformation was complete. The trees then had much the appearance of ours in the Atlantic states, in June.

Yokohama offers to the botanist some profitable excursions



merely to remind intending tourists that no obstacles are now thrown in the way of any one desirous of exploring the Empire. In fact, it may be said, that it is not unusual to find even in out of the way places, people who are anxious to give any assistance in their power in the way of collecting, and of preparing desirable specimens. The means of communication have been so much improved of late years that a tourist can go by rail from Kobe, skirting the base of Fuji, to Yokohama, with great comfort; or he can reach Nikko and the northern port of the lower island with great facility. At any of the points designated in the passport, the tourist can find a convenient center for local exploration.


In Yokohama itself there is no Botanic Garden, but there are good opportunities in and around the city for examining Japanese horticulture. Some of the establishments are large and well organized, and carry a very heavy stock, while some of the smaller ones are interesting on account of their specialties. Few cultivated plants possess more interest than the dwarfed trees found in the larger Japanese Gardens and frequently used as house decorations. The extravagant claims made as to the great age of some of them cannot of course be established by satisfactory evidence, or, for that matter, successfully contested by skeptics. In no case of a potted commercial plant did I hear a greater antiquity claimed than six hundred years; but it is said that in some of the gardens of the nobles, plants much older than this can be found. Dwarfed trees are pointed out in one of the larger gardens in Tokio, which are claimed to go nearly up to the age of a thousand years. After one has carefully examined the very slight growth made each year and has noted the extraordinary painstaking and skill with which every needless bud has been removed, it seems almost ungracious to refuse to accept the unwritten history. The methods by which plants are dwarfed has been clearly explained in many works, and generally with correctness, but a brief mention of the practice in commercial gardens may be useful.

First of all, good subjects for experimenting are selected, and, from the outset, these are placed under favorable conditions for slow development. All buds which can be spared are taken off with great care, and the root-system is brought within as narrow compass as possible. In a few of the cases which were shown me by the nurseryman who gave me instruction, the amount of root-surface retained was ludicrously inadequate to supply the most moderate demands of a healthy plant. And, yet, the plants in question were sufficiently vigorous to present an unfailing crop of bright foliage every year. The buds are reduced in number beyond what one might regard as safe limits for a healthy plant, and thus the dwarfed plant, crippled above and below, becomes almost a pathological specimen. But experience shows abund-

antly, that the few phytomera which are left, are ample to protect the organism against ordinary perils. The prices asked for the best specimens varied from forty to one hundred dollars, (Mexican), these plants being thrifty, clean, picturesque, and very old, say from two to three hundred years. Dwarfed flowering plants, such as cherries, magnolias, and the like, varying from fifteen to fifty years, could be had for about thirty dollars. These prices differ widely in different places, and it is impossible to state any averages.

Larger trees pruned into flat shapes, and encouraged to grow only horizontally, are common, and are among the most interesting specimens of topiary work in the world. The most remarkable one likely to be seen by the tourist is that at Lake Biwa, about ten miles from Kioto. Here at Karasaki, near Otsu, is the immense and very old Pine tree, which is trained horizontally, and extends over a considerable area, with its flat branches supported on pillars and poles. Japanese traditions assign to this tree an exceedingly great age. It should be said in passing, that the practice of training also fruit trees on flat trellises is much in vogue. It imparts to the trees, when one looks down on them from a slight elevation, precisely the impression that they are vines of some sort, grown for shade rather than for fruit. Good examples of this method are to be seen near Yokohama.

At the time of my visit to Tokio, the cherry-blossoms were in perfection. In certain parts of the city and the suburbs the streets were thronged by Japanese who were enjoying the profusion of delicate coloring which clothed the leafless trees. The blossoms most in favor were the pink cherries and the pure white plums. The term "pink," usually and naturally applied to the cherry blossoms of Japan, does them injustice: the tint is rather that of the most delicate "rose-madder." After seeing the blossoms at Ueno one cannot wonder that these trees are chosen



struck me that there was abundant evidence of a lack of funds for the proper care of the garden: retrenchment has been carried too far in this interesting place. The collection of plants illustrative of systematic botany is large, and many of the specimens well-grown. This seemed to be particularly true of the foreign species. There were excellent examples of trained trees, and in some parts of the grounds, the characteristic landscape gardening had yielded good results. The management of the conifers was especially noticeable.

A small fee is charged for admission to the garden. The grounds are said to be much frequented at certain times. On the occasion of my visit, there were few visitors: this was probably due to the fact that the exhibition of blossoming trees in the vicinity of the temples was far finer in every respect, than that which the garden could present.

A careful search through various horticultural establishments, as well as my study of the Imperial garden at Chokubutsu, has satisfied me that there are many more attractive plants yet to be brought from Japan to our country. Most of them, to be sure, have been already noticed in the horticultural journals, but they have not received the attention which they deserve. Some of the dwarfed flowering shrubs and trees would certainly prove most acceptable for house decoration, while the early flowering trees of large size merit a thorough trial in the middle States of our Union.

Answering a question which has been often asked, it will be well to mention the ease and rapidity with which a tourist can visit the famous locality, Nikko. Of the temples there it is not necessary to speak, but the groves of conifers which surround them must be alluded to. These are of great size and of symmetrical port. Many of them are arranged effectively in and around the temple grounds, but those which are of highest interest are the magnificent specimens which constitute the miles upon miles of shaded avenues. This locality which formerly required a long and tedious jinrickisha ride, can now be reached in less than a day's journey from Tokio. In closing, it must be confessed that the new railroads in Japan, which it may well be claimed have destroyed much of the peculiar charm of the Empire, have rendered accessible to many naturalists, localities which otherwise they could not have found time to study.

In bringing to an end this short series of sketches of a long journey, I must be pardoned for calling attention again to the extraordinary fact that the newly settled countries of the South Seas and the newly awakened people of the Orient have hastened to provide themselves with appliances for research and instruction in Natural History on a scale which should put to blush some of our communities. There is, as we have seen in earlier numbers of this series, hardly a large town in Australasia which does not possess a good Botanic Garden or a Natural History Museum, or both. Even in places which do not have a Botanic

Garden, properly so-called, there is, as in Dunedin, in New Zealand, and Geelong, in Victoria, a public garden, in which a good deal of attention is given to the exhibition of native plants.

Can there be any valid excuse urged by the young and flourishing cities of our own country for not providing for the public, these simple and useful means for popular instruction?

To serve as a basis for comparison with our own communities, it is thought best to subjoin a few statistics relative to population taken from Hübner's *Statistische Tabellen*. The figures apply to the towns and cities of which mention has been made in the sketches.

| | |
|-----------------------------|---------|
| Melbourne and suburbs | 410,000 |
| Sydney | 357,000 |
| Adelaide | 128,000 |
| Auckland | 57,000 |
| Dunedin | 46,000 |
| Christchurch..... | 45,000 |
| Brisbane | 74,000 |
| Wellington | 28,000 |
| Hobart..... | 25,000 |
| Geelong..... | 21,000 |

These figures, which are only approximate, correspond very nearly to those given in the latest *Australian Year-Book* (1890) accessible to me. Hübner's data are preferred, because the year-book does not add in the population of the suburbs of some of the cities. In fairness, these should be included.

It would seem that many of our American cities and towns have much to learn from these smaller communities in the islands of the South Seas.

G. L. G.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE



different observers to range from 1.13 to 1.24. The results of the analysis are given below, together with comparative figures showing the composition (average of several analyses) of the water of the Dead Sea and that of concentrated sea water from Kakaako salt works. The figures represent in each case the quantity in grains of the ingredient contained in one wine gallon of the water :

| | Salt Lake. Grains. | Dead Sea. Grains. | Concen- trated Sea Water. Grains. |
|--|-----------------------|----------------------|---|
| Chloride of sodium | 6,989 | 5,137 | 13,239 |
| Chloride of calcium | 7,742 | 2,077 | absent |
| Chloride of magnesium | 7,790 | 8,235 | 3,779 |
| Bromide of magnesium | 99 | 208 | 57 |
| Sulphate of magnesium | absent | absent | 2,478 |
| Sulphate of calcium | 34 | 58 | 22 |
| Chloride of potassium | 156 | 736 | 534 |
| <hr/> | | | |
| Total solids | 22,810 | 16,451 | 20,109 |
| Weight of one gallon (approximate) | 73,044 | 68,900 | 72,180 |

The most remarkable peculiarity of the water is the excessive quantity of calcium chloride, the large amount of magnesium chloride and the absence of magnesium sulphate. Part of the lime as well as the magnesia may have been supplied by the tufa ; but there is a ledge of coral-reef rock on one side.

2. *National Academy of Sciences*.—The following is a list of papers accepted for reading at the meeting of the Academy held at New York, Nov. 10–12 :

G. L. GOODALE: Some aspects of Australian vegetation. The nomenclature of vegetable histology.

C. S. HASTINGS: Certain new methods and results in optics.

T. C. MENDENHALL: Exhibition of the new pendulum apparatus of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, with some results of its use. The use of a free pendulum as a time standard

E. D. COPE: Degenerate types of scapula and pelvic arches in the Lacertilia.

T. B. OSBORNE: The proteids or albuminoids of the oat-kernel—second paper.

C. S. PEIRCE: Astronomical methods of determining the curvature of space.

J. A. ALLAN: Geographical variation among North American birds, considered in relation to the peculiar intergradation of *Colaptes Auratus* and *C. Cafer*.

S. C. CHANDLER: The variation of latitude.

S. H. SCUDDER: The Tertiary Rhynchitidæ of the United States.

O. N. ROOD: A color system.

J. K. REES: Preliminary notice of the reduction of Rutherford's photographs.

H. A. ROWLAND: The application of spectrum analysis to the analysis of the rare earths, and a new method for the preparation of pure yttrium.

THEO. GILL: A nomenclator of the families of fishes.

A. A. MICHELSON: Measurement of Jupiter's satellites by interference.

W. K. BROOKS: The follicle cells of *Salpa*.

3. *The Metal Worker*: Essays on House Heating by steam, hot water and hot air with introduction and tabular comparisons. Arranged for publication by A. O. KITTRIDGE. New York. 288 pp. 8vo. 1891 (David Williams).—This volume contains a number of essays by a variety of writers called out by a series of prize competitions established by "The Metal Worker"

in 1888. They discuss, from a thoroughly practical standpoint, the various forms of heating in use with illustrations, tabular statements of cost and so on and thus give the reader a wide range of information on a subject of prime importance.

The Four Rocks, with Walks and Drives about New Haven; by James D. Dana. 120 pp. 8vo. with 7 plates. New Haven, Sept. 1891. (E. P. Judd)—The little book contains the author's paper in the early part of this volume, and also eighty pages of instructive geological notes, etc., with regard to walks and drives within twenty miles of New Haven.

Copernic et la découverte du Système du Monde, par Camille Flammarion. 154 pp. 12mo. Paris (Marpon et Flammarion).

Systematic list of the British Oligocene Eocene Mollusca of the F. E. Edwards Collection in the British Museum by R. B. Newton, F.G.S. 366 pp. 8vo. London. 1891.

Transactions of the Kansas Academy of Science, vol. xii 1889-90. Topeka. 1890.—Prof. S. W. Williston gives figures of the complete skull and a cervical vertebra of his new Cretaceous Plesiosaur (*Cimoliosaurus Snowii*) from the Niobrara Cretaceous of Western Kansas, on pp. 174, 176.

Stratigraphy of the Bituminous Coal Field of Pennsylvania and West Virginia by L. C. White. 212 pp. 8vo. with a map and sections. U. S. Geol. Survey Bulletin, No. 65, Washington, 1891.

The Mediterranean Naturalist, a monthly Journal of Natural Science, edited by J. H. Cooke, F.G.S., at Malta. —No. 1 of this monthly of 12 to 16 pages was issued June 1, 1891. Price 5 shillings a year. Address the editor at the Lyceum, Malta. In number 2, a paper on the geology of the Malta Islands by the editor is commenced.

Progress Report on Irrigation in the United States, under the direction of the Secretary of Agriculture; Artesian underflow and Irrigation Investigation. Part I by R. J. HINTON. 338 pp. 8vo; Part II, with maps and profiles, by E. S. NETTLETON, Chief Engineer of the Investigation. Washington, 1891.

OBITUARY.

J. FRANCIS WILLIAMS, Assistant Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in Cornell University, died at Ithaca, N. Y., on November 8th, of malarial fever. He was but twenty-nine years of age, but had already done some excellent scientific work, and

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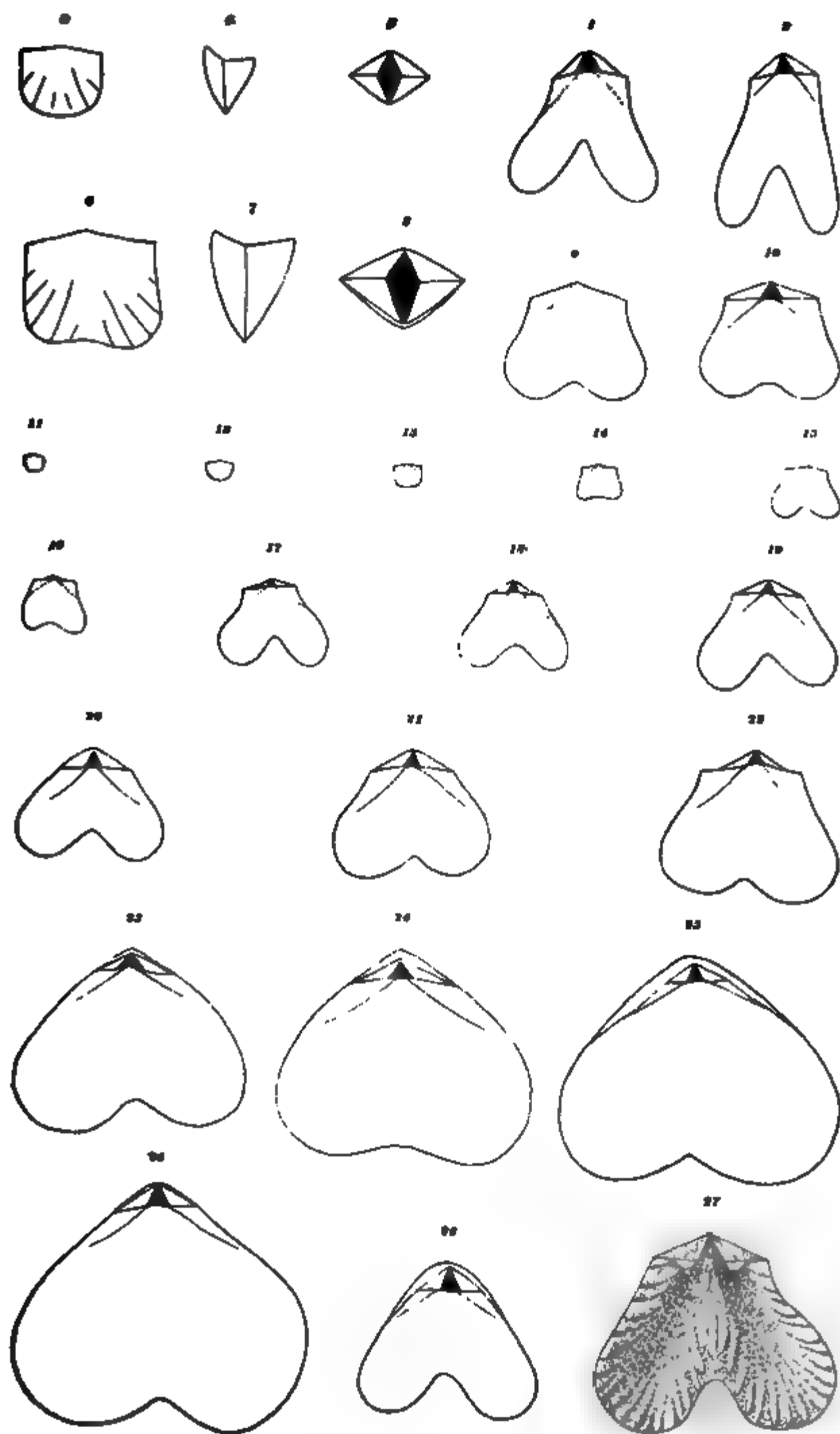
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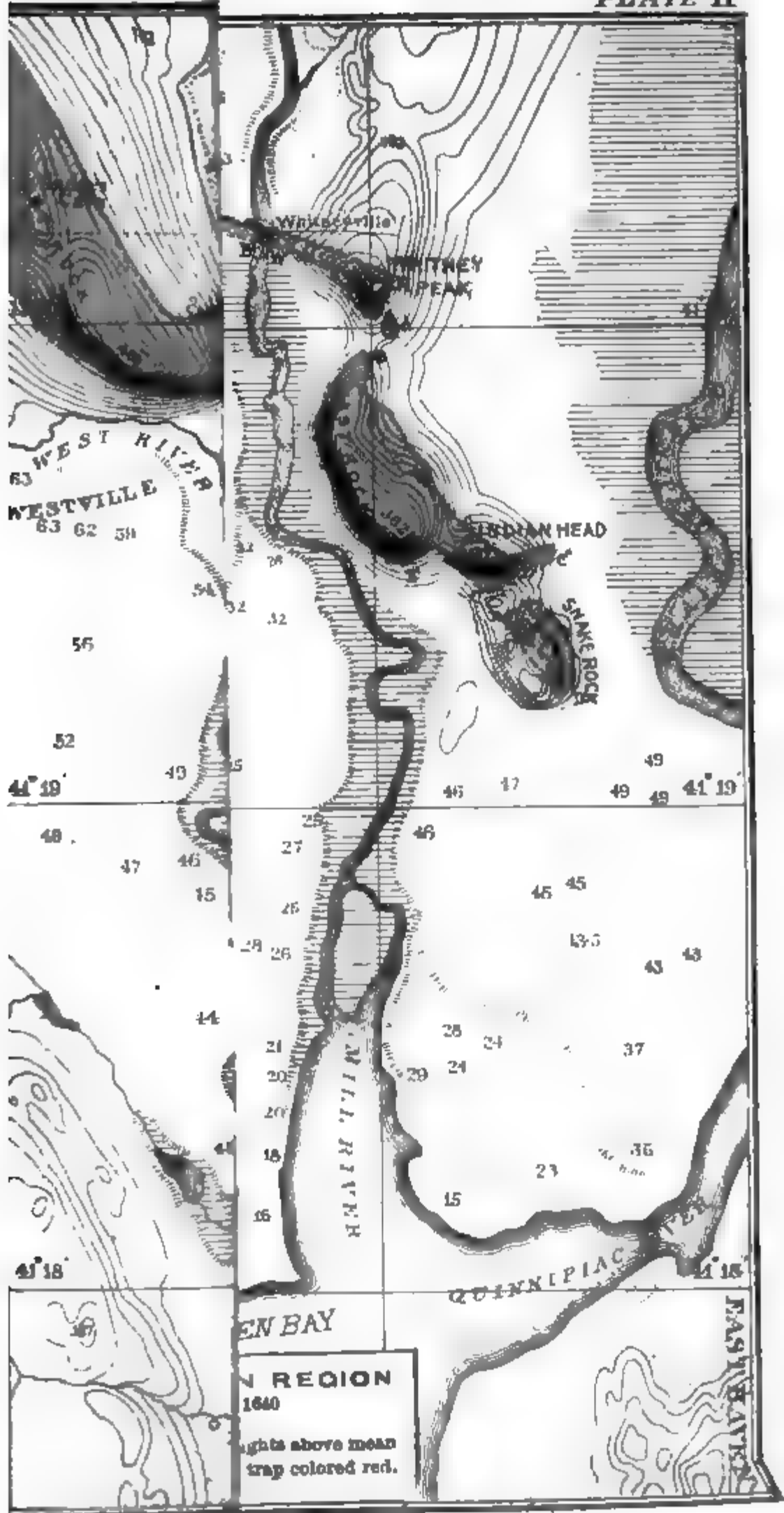
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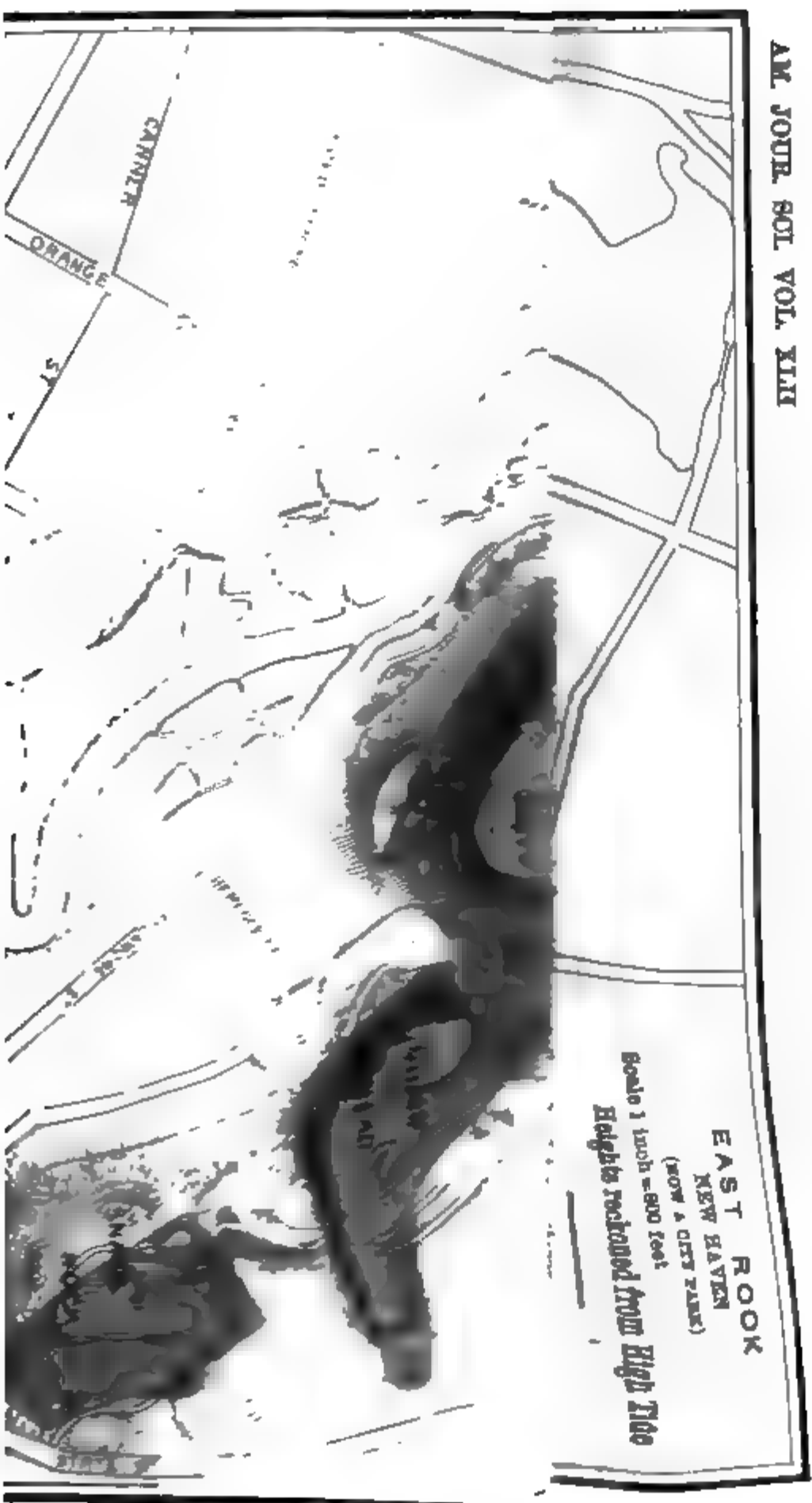
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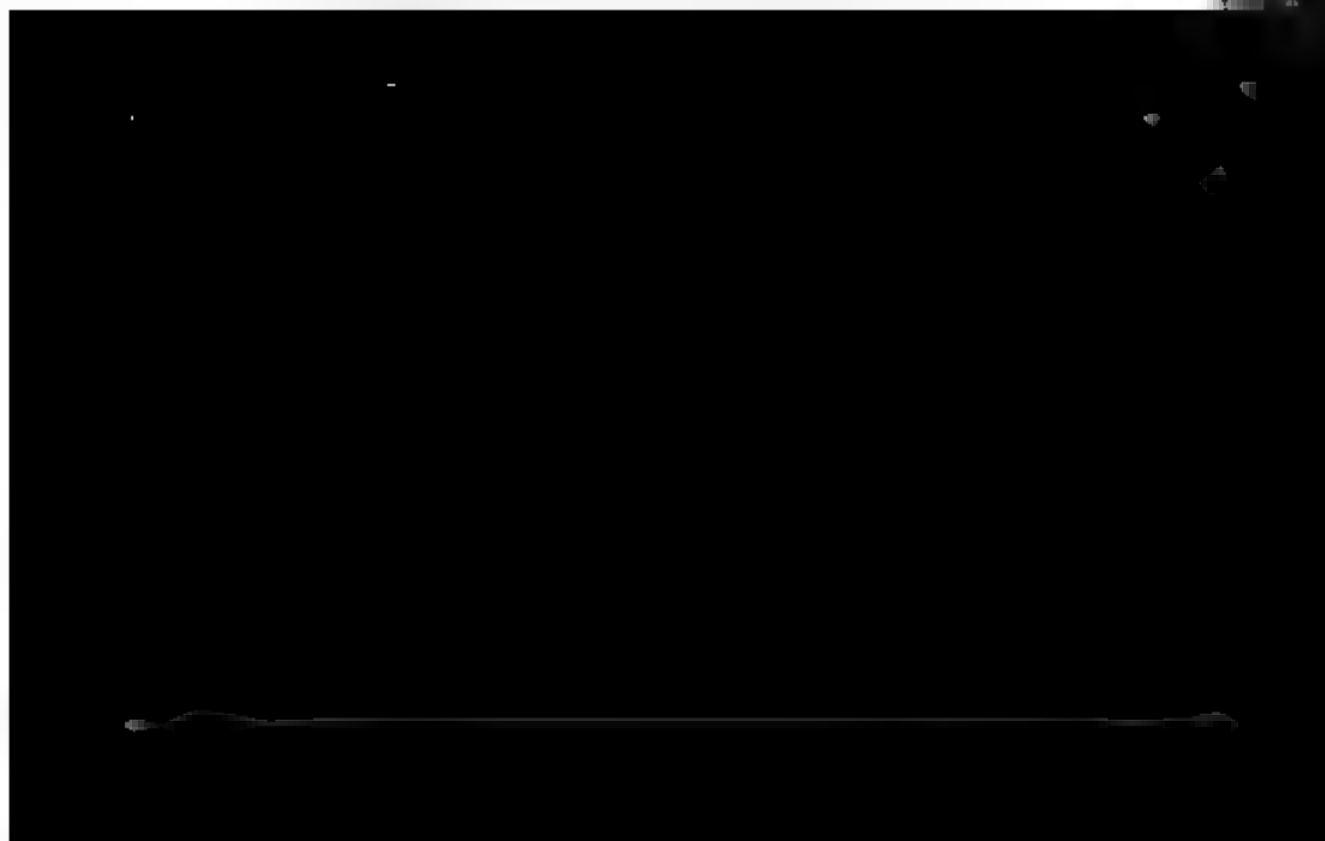
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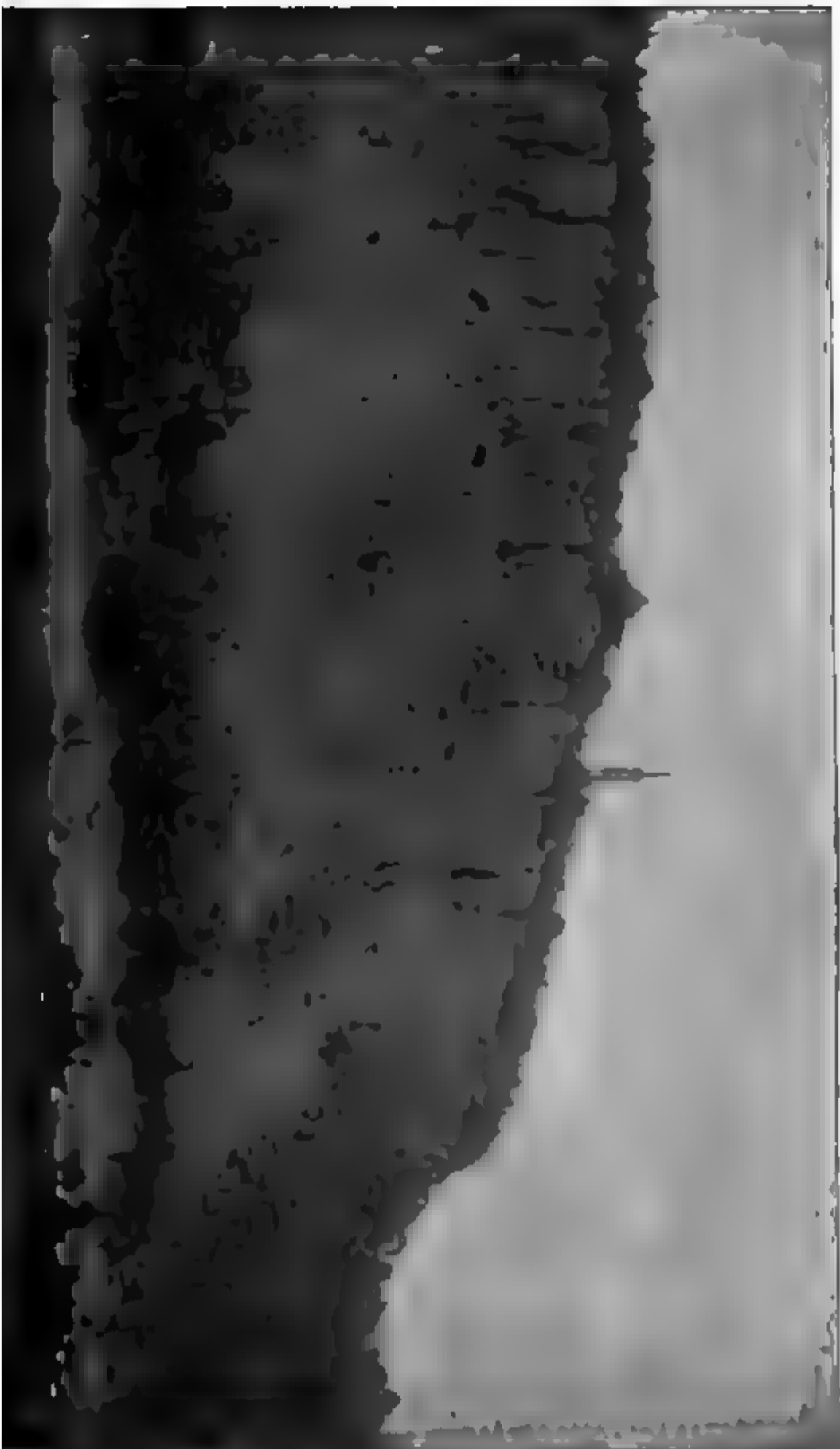
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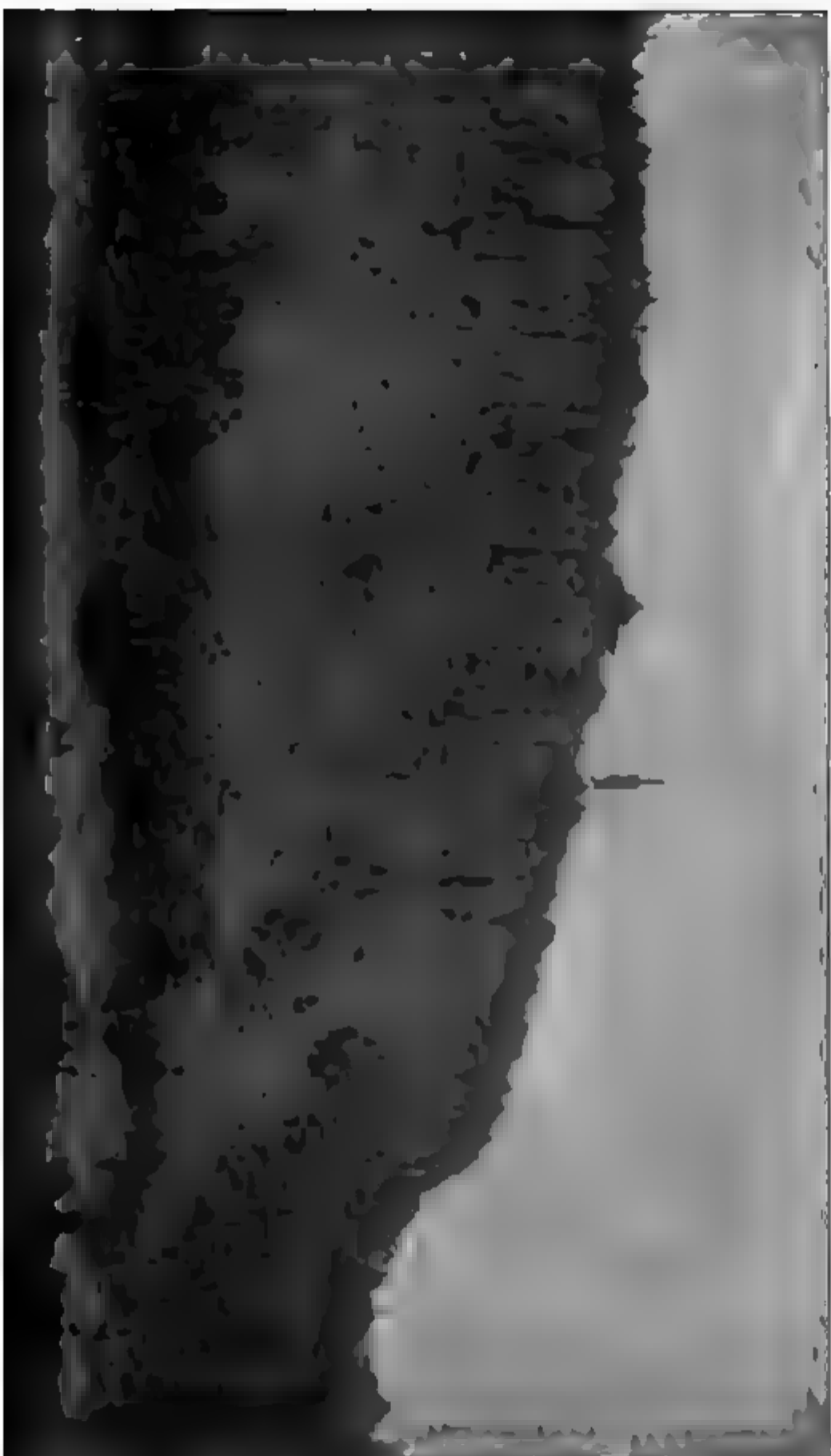












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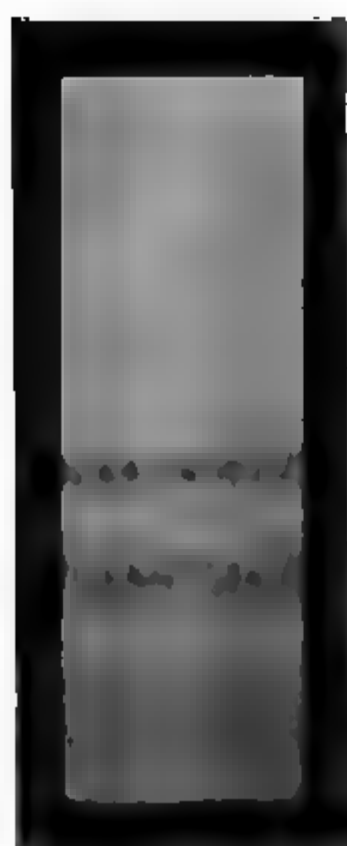
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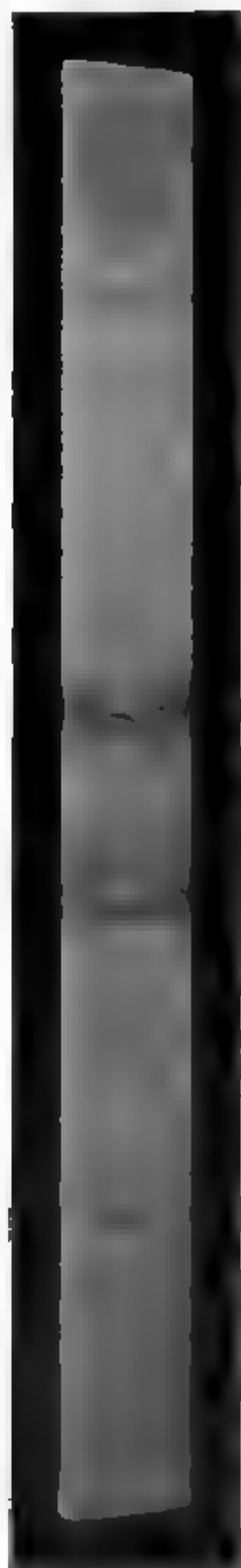
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Profile view of columns, East Rock, near the house on the brow of the Rock in Plate IV.
(From a photograph.)



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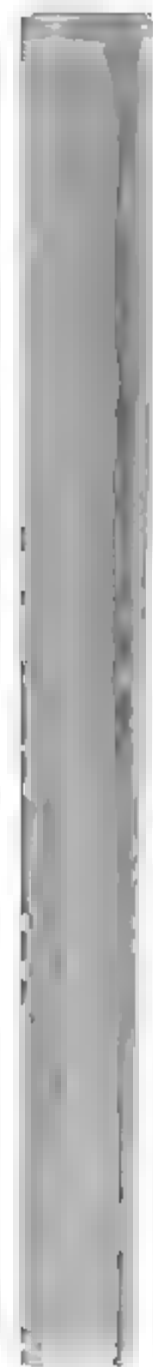
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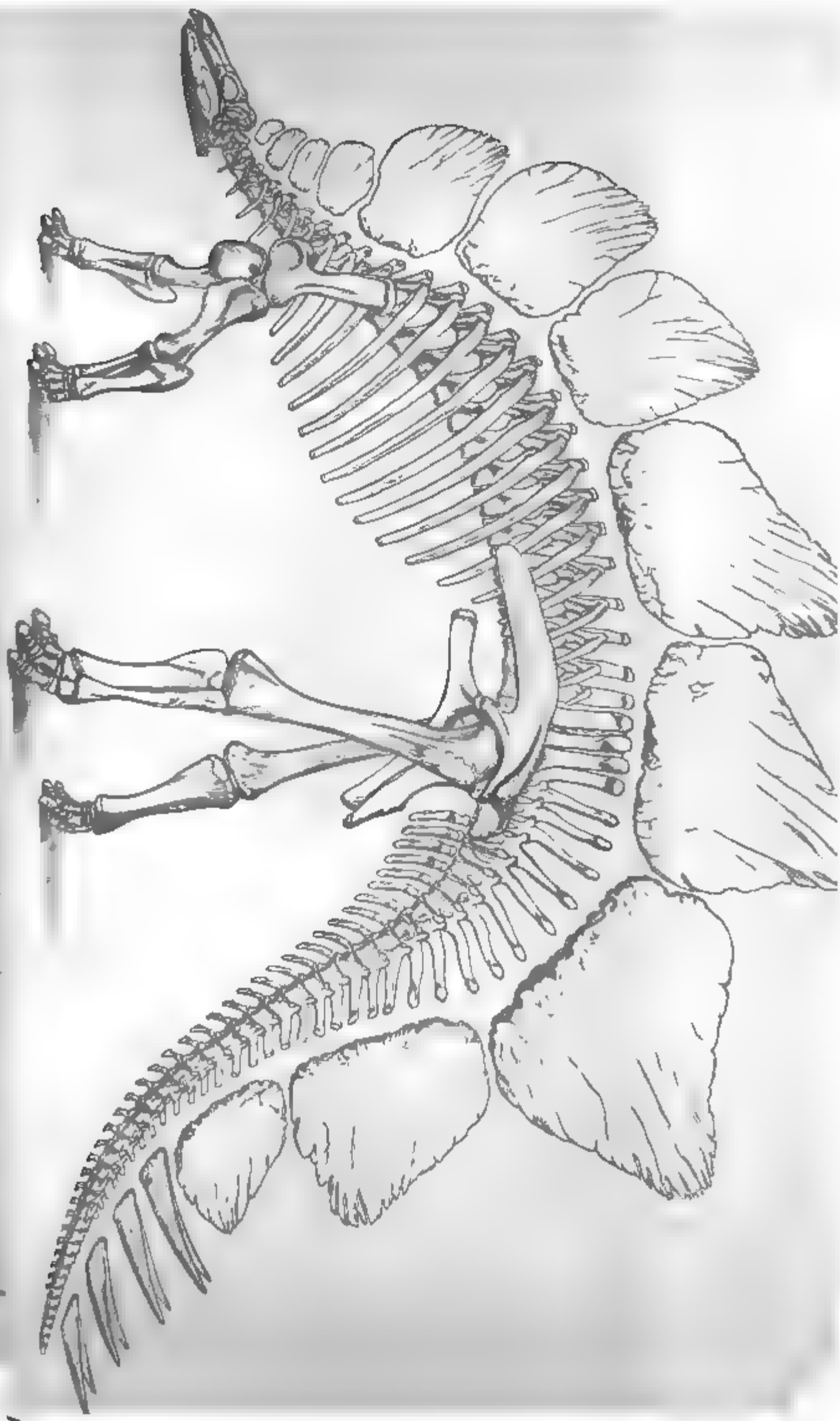
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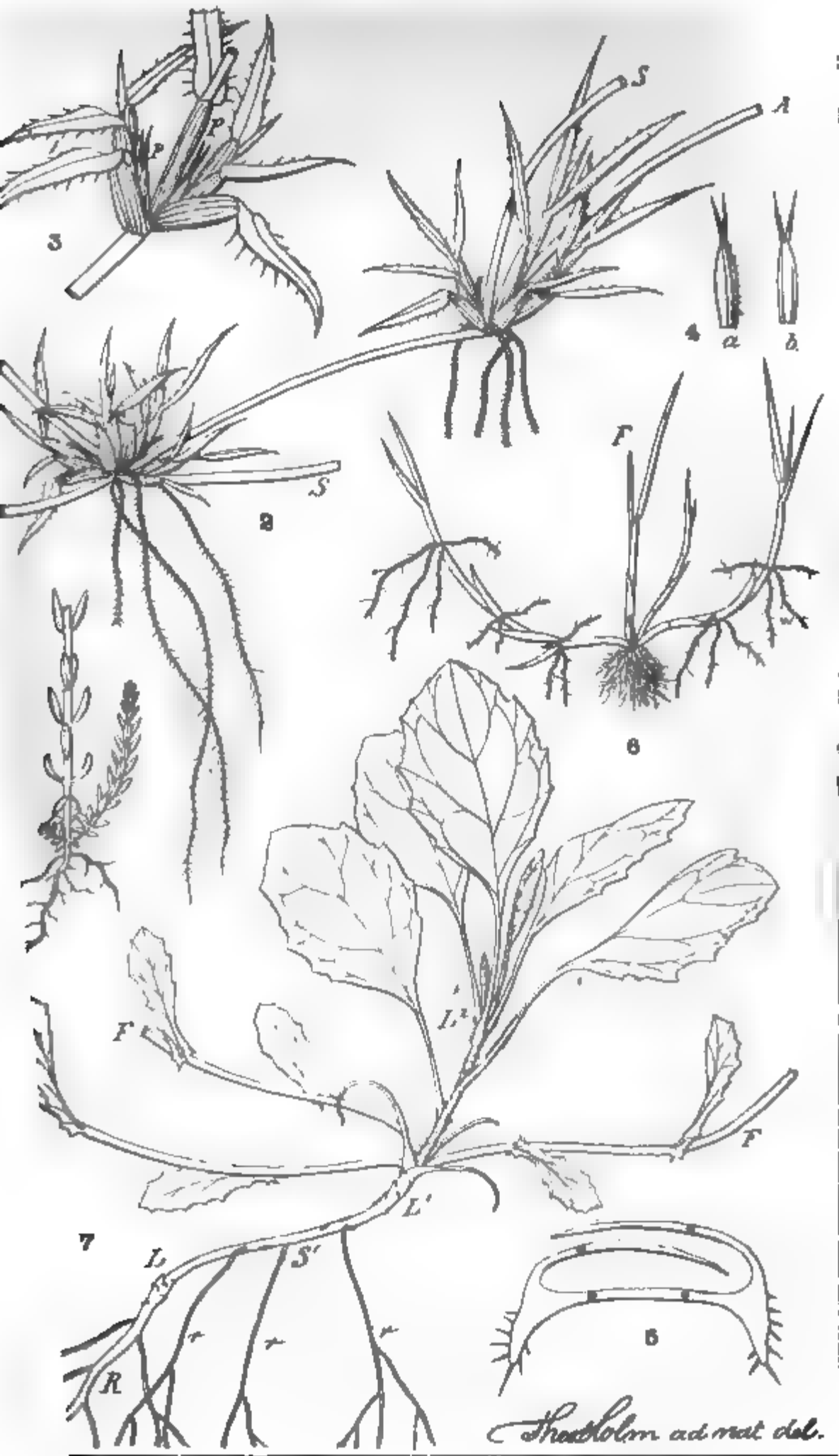


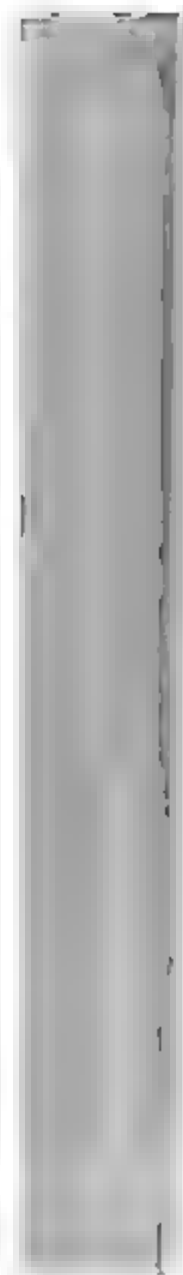
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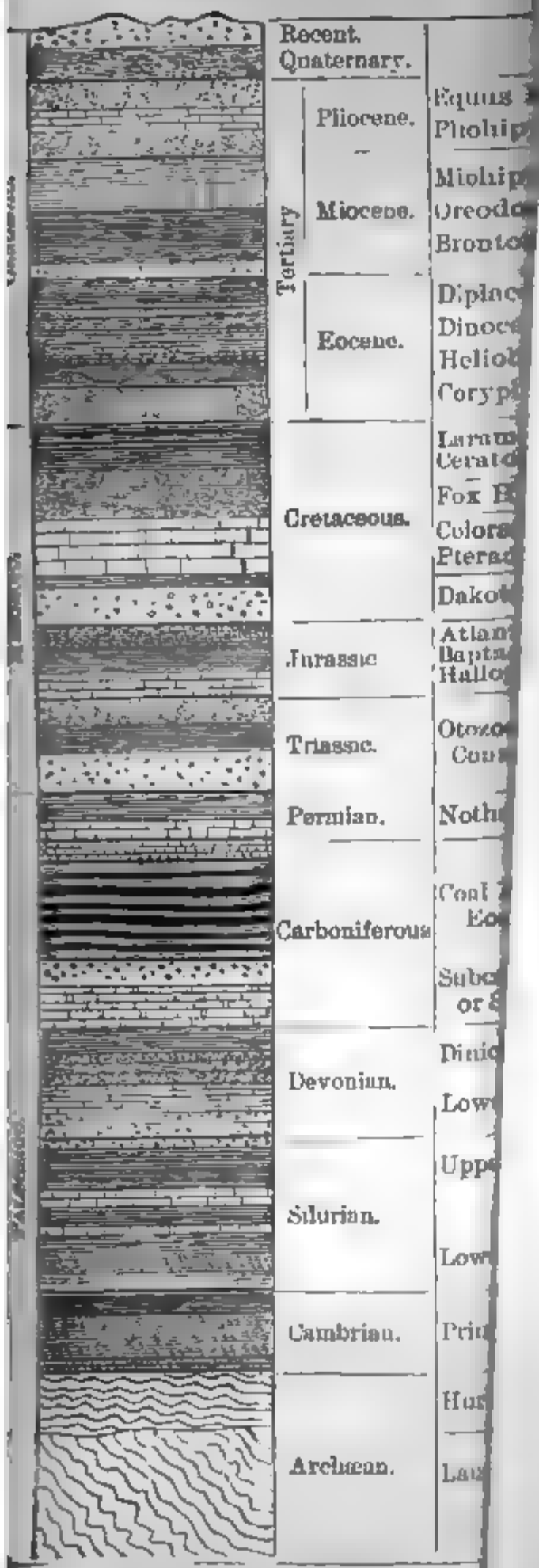
Reproduction of *Stegosaurius quadratus*, Marsh. (One-third natural size)





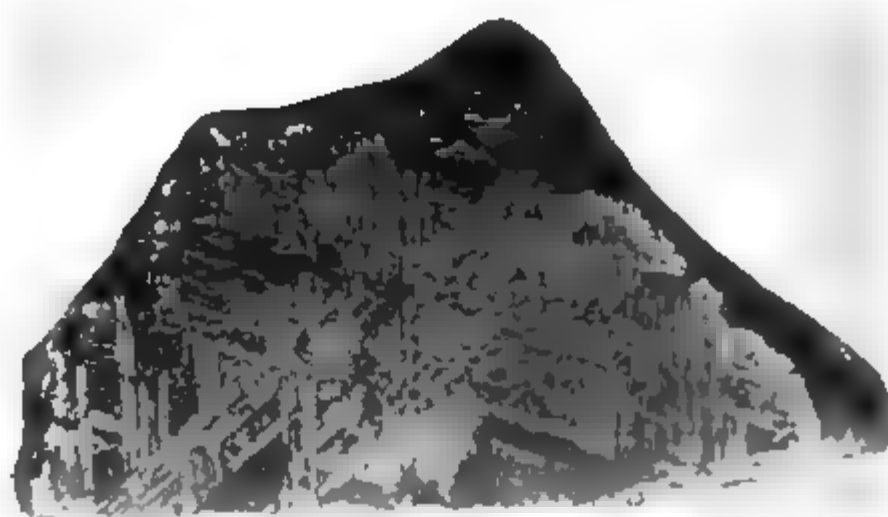
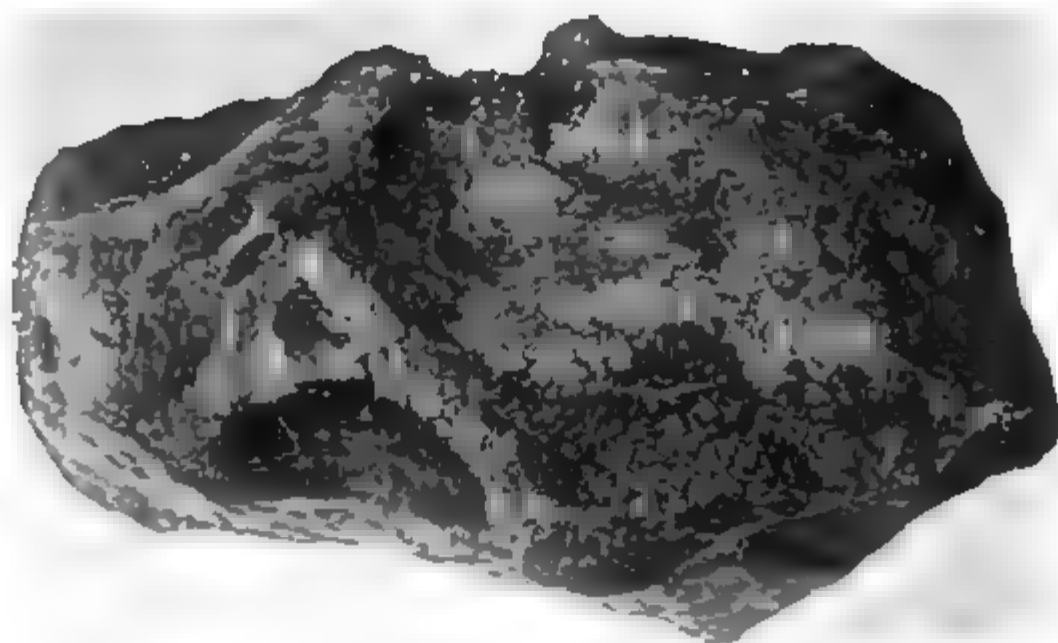


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SECTION TO ILLUSTRATE





TONGANOXIE METEORITE.

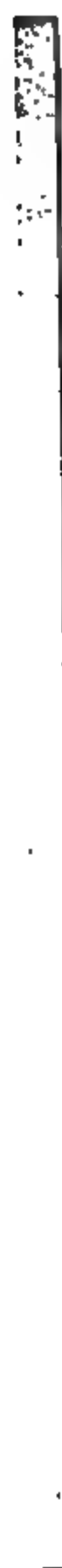
FIG. I.—Five-twelfths natural size.

FIG. II.—Etched surface, reduced one-fifth



Meteoric fragment
Larger mass

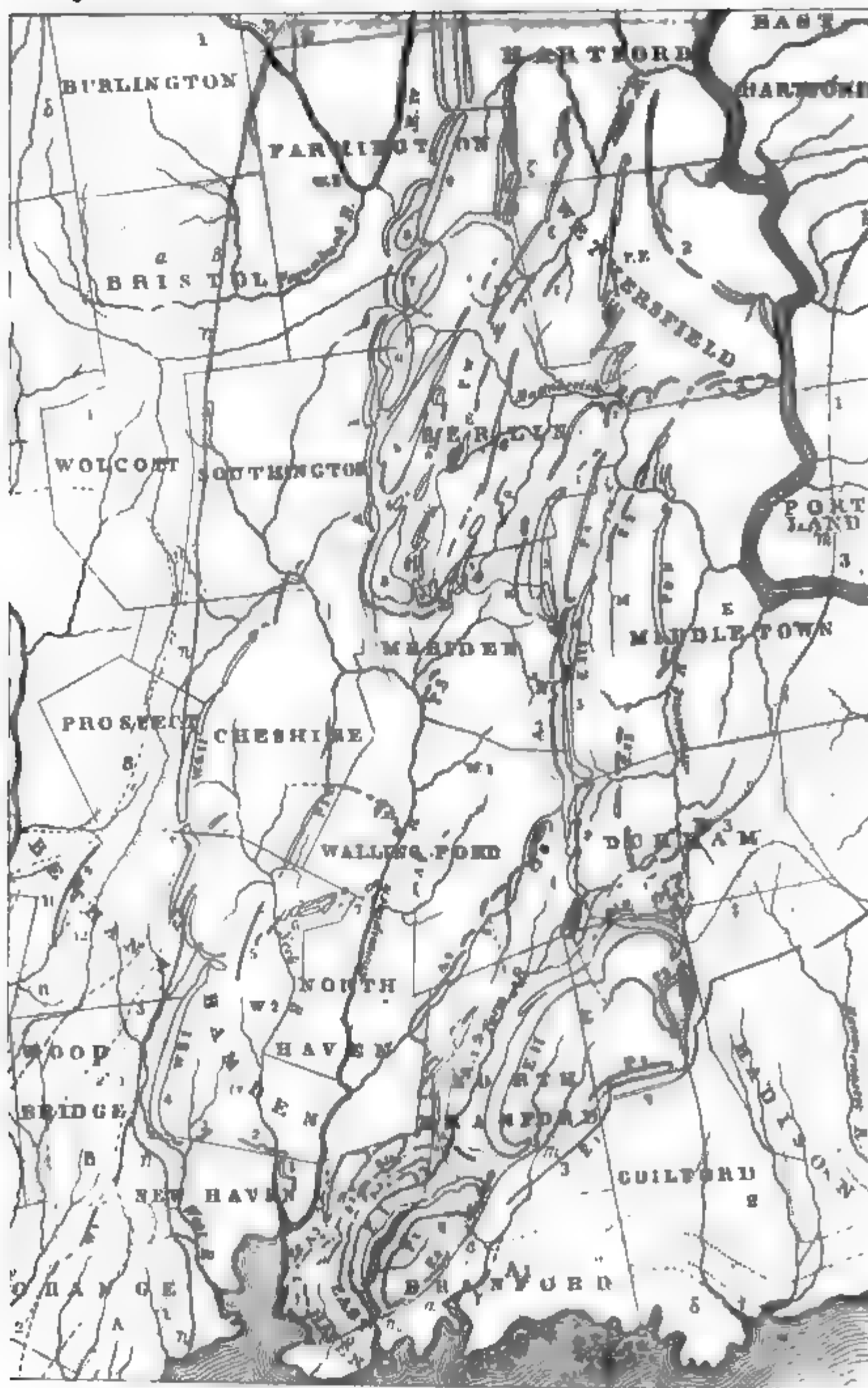
v.



Polished Surface of Meteoric Iron from Cañon Diablo, Arizona, showing Widmanstätten figures. A small black



Levy's photo 1891













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